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INTEGRATING VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE INTO PROGRAMS FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH: A CASE STUDY OF LESOTHO

A Dissertation Presented

By

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To

My Mother and Father

and Sister

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ABSTRACT

INTEGRATING VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE INTO PROGRAMS FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH: A CASE STUDY OF LESOTHO

(May 1982)

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This study concerns the use of vocational guidance in out-of-school youth programs in developing countries, with specific reference to its current use in Lesotho, Southern Africa. General recommendations regarding its integration into youth programs are provided.

Chapter I introduces the problem of out-of-school youth and youth programming. A literature review in Chapter II addresses the characteristics, statistical dimensions, and needs of out-of-school youth in a global context with emphasis on nonindustrialized nations. The review also examines specific programmatic responses to the needs of out-of-school youth as well as general youth policies and directions. Chapter III reviews the literature on vocational guidance and examines how it is defined and implemented in the context of nonindustrialized countries,

with a final section concentrating on vocational guidance in Lesotho.

In Chapter IV, an account of Lesotho's out-of-school youth needs and problems is presented. Four life histories provide an introduction to the chapter with an exploration of those needs and problems through a contextual framework. Information for that chapter was gathered through interviews with youth, youth leaders, and planners. Chapter V examines eight specific out-of-school youth programs in Lesotho: a description of their program components, the needs they address, their use of vocational guidance, and the contributing and constraining factors for that use.

Chapter VI analyzes youth services in Lesotho by presenting conclusions about existing practices and programming, options for improving youth services, and specific program recommendations for integration of vocational guidance into youth programs. Final conclusions and recommendations are addressed in Chapter VII covering such topics as national policy, needs and resource assessments, interagency cooperation, and selection of an appropriate vocational guidance model.

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C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

The youth of the world constitutes a growing segment of the population that must be considered in any analysis of the problems of development. In the past, the potential contribution of youth to development was seen to be best channeled through the formal school system. However, planners and educators have recently come to the realization that the problems both of development in the broad sense and of the youth themselves must be viewed through a much broader lens, addressing the complex of economic, social, cultural and psychological factors.

National governments and international organizations have become alarmed at the implications of the demographic statistics concerning youth, generally described as the 12-25 age group. An educator from the Caribbean described it this way:

> The demographic change was foreseen long ago but not everyone was prepared for it. Unpreparedness explains the contradictions, the tensions, and the shocks thatwe are witnessing as youth move en masse into present day society and try to reshape it. (UNESCO, 1969, p. 13)

In some countries today, as in the case of St. Lucia, the youth population under the age of 25 represents more than

50% of the total population.

The formal school system has not been able to cope with the numbers of young people demanding access to educational and training opportunities. Today, youth are being "left out" of the formal system in large numbers. Of the 12 to 17 age group, 1975 statistics revealed that only 35% were enrolled while only 8.7% of the 18-23 age group were enrolled in that same year. These statistics, however, do not address the large urban-rural disparities that exist nor do they give an accurate picture of male/female differences.

Those youth who have not been favored by the educational system are pitted against those that have. Youth are competing for scarce resources in their search for employment and a better life for themselves and their brothers and sisters. This search is compounded by poverty, rural-urban migration, overcrowded cities, and a general feeling of stress in our societies.

Central to the individual and collective needs and problems of youth is their state of transition. Socially, economically, and culturally, youth are in a period where they are considered neither children nor adults. The psychological and physiological aspects of transition are equally important. Within each country and region this period of transition is viewed differently

and, therefore, individuals within these environments will have different needs and problems. However, research seems to indicate that many of the problems are common worldwide (UNESCO, 1969; Commonwealth Secretariat, 1970c).

Some of the problems that appear to be common rest with such issues as: the inadequacies of social institutions; feelings of frustration over roles and the conflict between traditional and modern worlds; unrealistic job aspirations of job seekers and school leavers; disparities and conflict between urban and rural youth; lack of communication between and among different groups; rising expectations of adults and parents; a society in a state of flux; and being part of a group regarded as a "problem" rather than a resource.

Many countries have turned to nonformal or out-of-school offerings to try to solve some of the problems of youth and to attempt to meet their needs. However, statistics suggest that the nonformal education coverage is small, and among these programs, most focus on employment-related needs and problems. These programs address such issues as revisions of the formal school system for a more relevant curriculum; "reforming the economy" and the environment; and skills building processes that prepare youth for occupations.

Other kinds of programs for youth address the need

for equal access to training and educational resources, apart from those related to employment alone. Such programs are directed for example, at providing education in functional literacy and numeracy, family life, and knowledge of the environment and nature. A different type of program is concerned with community development and national service. Many programs reflect a combination of the above areas.

However, when looking at the kinds of needs these programs are aimed at, there remain many that are not adequately met. A partial list of such needs might include:

1. The need for youth to have access to information about their strengths and weaknesses, about occupations in the modern, informal, and traditional sectors, about training and educational opportunities, and about their role in the family and in the community;
2. The need for a productive forum to discuss the frustrations of alienation, transition, societal changes, and rising expectations, the "generation gap," and the lack of control they feel they have over their lives;
3. The need to have access to skills which will not only give them work but to help prepare

them for the world of work;

4. The need for a service that will support their entrance into the world of work;
5. The need for skills to carry out positive and productive relationships that will foster peer acceptance and community development.

Problem

What can be done to improve the programs for out-of-school youth to make them more responsible to a growing list of unresolved problems and unmet needs? What kinds of content and philosophy must be integrated into existing programs? What present practices could be improved upon to help out-of-school youth become better adjusted to the world of work?

As Z. M. Matsela's (1980) work asserts, nonformal education services must aim to "guide or lead the individual to his potential" and to base their content on "the present and continuing needs of the individual." To accomplish these, this study examines the potential use of vocational guidance as a tool for meeting the needs of the out-of-school youth population in the context of developing countries.

Purpose

The purpose of the study is to examine the role of vocational guidance in programs for out-of-school youth. The subpurposes of the study are to explore the needs and problems of the out-of-school youth population, the programmatic responses to those needs and the factors that contribute to or constrain the use of vocational guidance, with specific reference to Lesotho. The final chapters address specific recommendations for the use of vocational guidance in the context of Lesotho as well as in the larger context for program planners and youth workers.

Underlying the idea of integrating vocational guidance into programs for out-of-school youth are three basic assumptions. First, the assumption is made that it is possible to survey the needs and problems of out-of-school youth in developing countries and that the literature reflects the feelings and attitudes of the individuals and the collective. Secondly, the study assumes that vocational guidance is a viable option for meeting the needs of out-of-school youth in developing countries and that models for such practice do exist. And thirdly, the study assumes that using Lesotho as a case study will reflect general patterns in planning and

implementation and that these patterns might be generalizable to other contexts and populations.

To accomplish this purpose this study addresses the central question: What are the considerations for program planning when vocational guidance is integrated into programs for out-of-school youth? Specifically:

1. What appear to be the needs, problems, and characteristics of out-of-school youth, the general programmatic responses to those needs, and the range of policies and commitments by national and international bodies?

2. What in the vocational literature is theoretically relevant for such programs and what are some of the current vocational guidance practices for out-of-school youth in developing countries, with special reference to guidance in Lesotho?

3. What are the needs, problems, and characteristics of out-of-school youth in the context of Lesotho?

4. What does an exploratory examination of specific cases in Lesotho suggest to the options and considerations of using vocational guidance for out-of-school youth?

5. What are the feasible vocational guidance options for out-of-school youth programs in Lesotho and elsewhere, and what are the planning considerations for such programming?

Methodology

The procedures for examining the integration of vocational guidance for out-of-school youth included an examination of written materials, interviews with out-of-school youth and their leaders, and examination of out-of-school youth programs.

Review of Literature

The literature surveyed for this study encompasses three areas: the needs and problems of out-of-school youth in developing countries, the general nature of the programs that respond to those needs, and the concept and practice of vocational guidance in industrialized and nonindustrialized countries.

An examination of the literature on the needs and problems of out-of-school youth produced difficulties in distinguishing the differences between "needs," "wants," "rights," and "problems" of the youth groups, and the necessity of viewing needs at the individual level as well as at the collective level (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980). The following perspectives were sought for the literature review: as defined by educators and planners who have worked with developing countries; as defined by international organizations that have been concerned with the youth situation around the world; and as defined by

governmental and private organizations involved in the conduct of youth programs in both rural and urban settings in developing countries.

The nature and scope of out-of-school youth programs in developing countries and the needs they attempt to address have been examined with three basic focuses: employment related needs and responses; needs and responses to equal access to education and training; and participation needs and responses. A small section has been included which explores the range of policy and commitment to youth by governments and international organizations.

The concept and practice of vocational guidance has been explored through the literature as written by educators in both industrialized and nonindustrialized countries. The topics explored in this section include: purpose, content, setting, participants, and process. A specific section has also been included which explores the conduct of vocational guidance in Lesotho.

A review of the literature reveals certain limitations. Most research on the problems and needs of out-of-school youth center on concerns as defined by planners and leaders, little in the literature reflects the needs and concerns of youth as defined by themselves. Secondly, the literature on programs for out-of-school youth reveals that few of these are specifically designed for that sub-

section of the population. Most programs are intended for the general population not attending school; consequently, specific analysis of the out-of-school youth component in these programs is lacking. And, thirdly, there is not much literature on vocational guidance in developing countries. This area has only recently become a focus for writers, and documentation of its use is not readily available.

Interviews

The interviews for the study concentrated on two categories: out-of-school youth, leaders and parents, to determine the needs and problems of youth in Lesotho; and youth leaders and planners, to explore the nature and practice of out-of-school youth programs in Lesotho.

Interviews of youth were conducted to obtain qualitative data on their needs and problems. Both judgement and opportunistic sampling (Hongimann, 1973) were used to gain first-hand knowledge from the out-of-school population. The researcher used prior knowledge of the Lesotho context and drew upon representatives who possessed distinctive qualifications. In this case those qualifications were: age range of 12-25; never attended school or attended some or all of primary or secondary school; both sexes; both rural and urban origins; and able to speak English or communicate through

an interpreter. Approximately forty youth were interviewed over the three month period and four life histories were written from these interviews. Life histories have been used not to obtain autobiographical details about one specific person but to have some representative individual describe his/her life in relation to the group of out-of-school youth in Lesotho. The life histories are used as explanatory and illustrative material to support other kinds of data collected.

Interviews with youth leaders and planners were basically drawn from judgement and opportunistic sampling. The data collected is in the form of a narrative about needs and problems of out-of-school youth in addition to eight specific descriptions and evaluations of out-of-school youth programs. The interview guides used for both the youth and the leaders and planners can be found in the Appendix. The criteria for selection of the programs can be found in Chapter V and a complete list of the programs and organizations contacted appears in the Appendix.

It should be noted that the use of this type of methodology, in spite of its limitations, had spin-off effects that were not anticipated and could form the data base for another study or work in Lesotho. By engaging youth, adults, leaders, and planners in informal inter-

views and gatherings, this motivated several groups to take a closer look at their own programs and to ask for advice about how to incorporate vocational guidance into their programs, how to improve youth services in Lesotho, etc. In this way, both the researcher and the interviewees benefitted from these types of anthropological methodology for data collection.

Definitions

Out-of-School Youth. The literature reviewed uses various age groupings to define and classify "youth." For the purpose of this study, the arbitrary age range of 12-25 has been chosen as a starting point for examination. However, it should be noted that the meaning of youth varies from place to place and author to author, and often varies within countries as societies undergo rapid change.

UNESCO (1977b) defines the out-of-school youth group as comprising five main categories:

1. Those who have never entered school. This includes youth who have not attended school primarily because opportunities have not been available to them. In some cases, there are not enough places in schools in a given geographical area, and in other cases families can not afford to send the children to school. In places where parents are alienated from the schools or do not see

the value of schooling, it is unlikely that their children will attend.

2. Those who have entered primary education but have dropped out before completing the level. This category comprises those children/youth who leave school due to failure, those who are withdrawn by parents, or those who have become disillusioned with school and drift from absence into nonattendance.

3. Those who have completed primary education but who have not entered secondary school. Many countries can only provide places for primary school attenders and a large percentage cannot go on to the next level because of lack of places. Many parents regard basic literacy and numeracy as sufficient education while in other areas, primary education offers a young person an opportunity to find gainful employment.

4. Those who have entered secondary education but who have dropped out before completing this level. Many of the reasons mentioned for young people not completing primary education also apply here. In addition, young people in this category are often needed at home for economic reasons.

5. Those who have completed secondary education, but who have not entered higher education. This group includes those who have not been able or have not wanted

to enter higher education, and who may seek non-academic training or full or part-time empoyment.

This study will use these general categories for the sections on the out-of-school population. Lesotho also defines her youth as age 12-25 and, therefore, fits into the above definition of youth.

Out-of-School Youth Programs. The study focuses on those programs implemented in developing countries with the following criteria: those programs designed for a specific out-of-school youth group or for the out-of-school population in general; and those programs that are designed for anyone who is not in school, regardless of age, but that have a significant proportion of the target audience comprising out-of-school youth.

Vocational Guidance. For the purpose of this study, the term will simply be defined as guidance "concerned with the individual and his/her adjustment to the world of work" (Sanderson, 1954, p. 7).

Organization

Following this introductory chapter, the study is organized into six sections.

Chapter II reviews the literature on the needs, problems, and characteristics of youth in nonindustrialized

countries, the statistical dimensions of the group, programmatic responses to the needs, and a brief section on policies and commitment by national and international youth agencies. Chapter III reviews the use of vocational guidance in industrialized and nonindustrialized countries with referernce to how vocational guidance is defined and practiced in Lesotho.

Chapter IV presents the needs and characteristics of the out-of-school youth population in Lesotho by presenting four life histories in addition to data collected from leaders and youth. Chapter V describes and evaluates eight out-of-school youth programs in Lesotho and what needs, options and considerations they suggest for the use of vocational guidance. The program components explored are: staff, participants, objectives/philosophy, activities/content, planning, funding/control, and follow-up.

Chapter VI analyzes youth services in Lesotho by presenting conclusions about existing practices and programming, options for improving youth services and specific program recommendations for integration of vocational guidance into youth programs. Final conclusions and recommendations are addressed in Chapter VII covering such topics as national policy, needs and resource assessments, interagency cooperation, and selection of an appropriate vocational guidance model.

C H A P T E R I I

YOUTH CHARACTERISTICS, PROGRAMS AND POLICIES

Introduction

From Boston to Bangkok, the problems of youth in both industrialized and nonindustrialized societies are becoming a common concern the world over. The "problem" is tied up with employment and education and involves such factors as geography, male/female differences, ethnic origin and linguistic barriers. The real problems are more deep-seated than unemployment statistics. "Some of the fundamental values of today's civilization are bound up with the [youth] problem and are endangered by it" (UNESCO, 1980, p. 9).

This chapter will focus on the characteristics and statistical dimensions of the out-of-school youth population; the specific needs of the group and a sample of the programmatic responses to those needs; and a brief overview of how government and international organizations are generally responding to the youth problem.

A Global Overview

In traditional societies there is no such thing as 'youth.' There is no generation gap--children grow from

childhood to adulthood without a significant break. They learn how to do tasks like their mothers and fathers and then continue these in their later years as they create their own families. They learn their work through everyday experiences and observations. A young African girl works side-by-side with her mother from a very young age and learns to take care of the home, her younger brothers and sisters, and learns to cook and do agricultural tasks.

However, her counterpart in areas that are becoming industrialized faces a different task. Work is technologically more complex, and it is no longer possible to learn many jobs directly in the workplace or in a purely pragmatic way. She now has to go to school where she will learn specialized skills. A long period stretches out the stages between her childhood and adulthood and affects everyone. It is harder to enter working life and harder to learn just what those skills are that are needed to become an adult.

And what are the implications when a traditional African boy or girl is faced with a set of conditions that forces them to enter into the cash economy of the country and gain skills and attitudes that will allow them and their family to survive? Youth as a class are beginning to emerge as an important factor to consider within the economic, cultural and social aspects of development.

It was thought that the formal school system would be the best place to give youth access to educational and training opportunities. But the schools have been unable to keep pace with the growing numbers of youth in Asia, Latin America, and Africa. In 1975, only 62% of the 6-11 age group was enrolled in the developing countries. Of the 12-17 age group, 35% were enrolled while only 8.7% of the 18-23 age group were in achool.

> Those who do enroll and complete school are pitted against the uneducated and the under-educated in their search for employment, in their search for control over scarce resources and in their attempts to preserve their status in societies in change. Those already favored by the educational system are often the recipients of additional training, and their education gives them access to information and resources which are often the keys to bettering one's life. (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 5)

Other factors contributing to the situation of youth in the nondindustrialized countries focus on poverty, rural-urban migration, overcrowded urban centers, and inequities in the allocation of limited resources. This situation has forced planners, government officials, and international agencies to take a closer look at the situation of youth and find ways to enhance the contributions youth can make to national as well as personal development.

Youth research has revealed that many of the needs and problems of youth center around the concept of

transition. No longer are children passed from childhood to adulthood without stress and a redefinition of their future roles. "Traditional" or initiation schools used to signal the transition from one status to another, they gave the youth a feeling of importance, recognition, and responsibility. What are the signals of modern times? The social, economic and cultural contexts of this new period take on a new meaning when examining the adult role of parent, citizen, provider, community member and participant in development.

Equally important in the period of transition is the psychological impact of the "passage." It is not the same for all youth: "individual needs will dictate specific actions and reactions to the expressed and latent aspirations of a society for its youth" (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 6).

Family structures are also changing and youth are leaving home earlier and in greater numbers. The 1972 statistics for Kenya show a yearly growth rate for Nairobi of some 10% while the growth rate for the country as a whole was 3%. Much of this migration has been attributed to rural youth between the ages of 16 and 24. Upon arrival in the city, the youth find themselves without traditional security, parental care and control, and are often reduced to living on the fringes of society.

Traditional community structures are also breaking down as they try to meet the demands of development. Youth are eager for a chance to make contributions to changing the structures that they feel are unresponsive. Rural youth are not content with their roles as subsistence farmers.

Young people, in some areas of the world, are starting work later in life than their parents, due to the changing customs, institutions, and economic environment. However, they are being denied the rights and responsibilities of adulthood until later in life.

Statistics indicate that rural youth continue to marry and have children quite early in life. "Almost all societies expect young people to marry and begin having children while they are still involved in the transition to adult life" (Unesco, 1980, p. 27). However, as youth enter the world of the 1980's and beyond, where economic scarcity is the projected obstacle, they will encounter problems establishing their families. For many, regardless of social class and level of education, unemployment is already a barrier to marriage. If they are already married, joblessness prevents them from establishing their own households. Youth will no longer be able to pursue an independent family life and follow the patterns of their parents.

Rising prices for houses and household items, along with the scarce prospects for income, have forced young singles and married couples into dependence upon the resources of their families, which may already be strained by younger children and economic depression. Even if this seems to strengthen the extended family, the stresses of such a situation cannot be ignored. A UNESCO report (1980) predicts a major theme of the '80's may be the resentment of dependency among young people who have been raised in the expectation of employment and prosperity.

The same report makes a note that the youth of the 1980's are the children of the youth of the 1960's. In the third world, today's parents are those who participated in the struggles for national liberation and for self-reliant development programs. The new generation faces a challenge in carrying their parents' hopes and dreams into an economically bleak future.

Many countries are now realizing that there is indeed a generation gap that is beginning to emerge: youth are becoming a distinct community with their own demands and rights. Demands for status and recognition have been witnessed in schools from Soweto to Manila, in the factories and villages, and in institutions designed for youth but usually run by adults, as in Ghana and Jamaica. Adults continue to regard youth as "awaiting

admission into society," but do not give any rights to that period of young adulthood. This generation gap is emerging as a gap in age as well as in moral values and intellectual perceptions.

This gap is also revealed when the expectations of parents and children are examined. Parents have been confused and shaken as they realize that their expectations regarding what education will offer differ widely from those of their children.

Economic factors are closely tied to youth and the problems of employment, unemployment, and underemployment. The labor market is unable to keep up with the growing numbers of young people demanding work as well as the inability of the formal school system to adequately prepare youth for entry into the world of work. "Youth education and employment are three areas which, when taken separately and especially when viewed as whole, have constantly occupied governments and the public in African countries since their attainment of independence some twenty years ago" (UNESCO, 1979, p. i).

Discrimination continues to exist against certain groups within the out-of-school youth population: young women, rural youth, and the illiterate. Women in developing countries comprise a significantly low proportion of those in school: 10% in Upper Volta to 35% in Mali. The

illiterate comprise an equally disadvantaged group. It is projected that by 1985, only one-half of the children in developing countries will be in school and have access to literacy and numeracy skills. And considering that over 90% of today's youth live in the rural areas, the significance of the problem begins to emerge (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980).

Other world-wide influences that are affecting the young people of today relate to the increase in communications between and within nations: radio, movies, television, books, and personal interaction with people from countries other than their own. The youth in many developing countries are being exposed to life-styles, tastes, and behavior patterns that are totally foreign and ill-suited to their daily lives. Some young people, as a result of this exposure, have come to view their own cultures and societies as somehow inferior and are thinking of ways to change their own societies to fit their new "image."

And as young people continue to face endless unemployment, underemployment, and uninvolvement in the activities around them, the need for leisure time activities and recreational facilities will become greater. "It would be an error. . . to ignore the demands of many young people for a more balanced flow

of information and entertainment in their societies and in the world. They wish to play an active part in communication as much as they want to participate fully in work and community affairs" (UNESCO, 1980, p. 38).

One of the most pressing problems cited by youth workers, parents, governments, and international commissions from almost all over the world is the rise in criminal behavior among the youth. Once considered a problem for industrialized societies, juvenile delinquency is rapidly expanding in many third world countries. This, together with alcohol and drug abuse, is becoming a major topic of concern and discussion all over the world. The predicted economic crisis of the 80's will intensify this form of escape among the young. Experts agree that juvenile delinquency results from poverty, educational failure, unemployment, poor housing and rural/urban migration. These problems have already been identified in many third world countries, and acts of violence, sexual assault, prostitution, and robbery are becoming a regular occurrence in many urban centers.

Added to youth's despair over the economic and social situation, they are beginning to lose confidence in their institutions. They are discouraged and frustrated with the inefficiency and inadequacy of the groups which form an important part of their life: social, religious,

educational, occupational, recreational and governmental. Many of these frustrations are connected with the inability of these institutions to respond to their growing needs and concerns and their desire to be involved in the political system. And "if government, youth organizations, and political parties continue to ignore these needs and are too slow to react to the first signs of anguish and anger, the young may act outside and against institutions" (UNESCO, 1980, p. 40).

How governments and institutions are dealing with the needs and demands of youth will briefly be described in the last section of this chapter. The following statistics may help to illustrate the characteristics of the youth population of the world and formulate more of a framework for understanding their position in the world.

Statistical Dimensions

As was stated earlier, an increasing focus is being placed on the growing youth population. The world population is becoming predominantly young as we move closer to the year 2000. It is estimated that the numbers in the 15-24 age group will rise from 519 million to 1,128 million in the forty year period from 1960-2000. And over three quarters of this age group live in the

developing countries: 44 million in Latin America, 322 million in Asia, and 59 million in Africa.

Table 1 illustrates the out-of-school youth population by regions, showing a gradual increase in numbers in the developing countries. Projections show that if education trends continue, the percentage of out-of-school youth in the 13-18 age group will actually decline from 76% to 72% in 1980. However, due to the rapid population growth, this reduction in percentage would, however, mean an increase in the absolute numbers of out-of-school youth in this age group from 109 million in 1970 to 132 million in 1980 (UNESCO, 1977a, p. 33).*

*It should be noted that a word of cauation must be given when examining statistics for out-of-school youth population: percentages versus absolute numbers; total increase in school enrollments; dropout rates and retention rates; and the age grouping under consideration.

Table 1

OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH BY REGIONS:
BOTH SEXES (MILLIONS)

REGION	Age-group 6-11			Age-group 12-17		
	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985
Middle Developed Region	9	7	7	23	19	12
Less Developed Region	110	121	130	139	173	197
Africa	30	32	34	32	37	41
Latin America	14	11	9	18	19	19
East Asia	0.5	0.1	0.1	5	3	1
South Asia	66	77	86	88	115	127

Source: Unesco, "Development of School Enrollment: World & Regional Statistical Trends and Projections 1960-2000," Conference Report, Paris: July, 1977, p. 35.

Educational profile. In assessing the educational profile of the out-of-school youth population this study will examine enrollment in primary, secondary and tertiary schools; literacy rates; and involvement in nonformal education programs.

Enrollment. The following statistics were presented by UNESCO in a report of the 1977 International Conference on Education.*

*There are weaknesses in gathering data on school enrollments that should be noted here: basic data collected from local schools and officials is difficult to collect and the accuracy may be doubtful as schools are often judged on the amount of enrolled pupils; enrollment and age ratios are often inflated by numbers of pupils who are older than the normal age; national ratios conceal disparities between rural and urban areas; enrollment ratios bear little relation to completion rates; and enrollment rates reveal little about the quality of education.

Table 2

ENROLLMENT RATIOS BY AGE-GROUP AND REGION: BOTH SEXES

REGION	Age-group 6-11			Age-group 12-17			Age-group 18-23		
	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985	1965	1975	1985
Middle Developed Region	92	94	94	79	84	89	24.6	30.0	35.9
Less Developed Region	54	62	68	28	35	42	5.0	8.7	12.1
Africa	40	51	61	22	31	42	2.7	5.8	9.4
Latin America	65	78	86	43	57	67	9.1	19.7	29.5
East Asia	97	99	100	73	83	92	11.2	19.8	28.5
South Asia	56	61	66	26	31	36	5.0	6.9	8.6
25 LDC	19	28	39	12	17	26	1.1	2.7	5.0
Sahel Countries	15	19	26	9	13	18	1.1	2.6	3.7

Source: Unesco, "Development of School Enrollment: World and Regional Statistical Trends and Projections, 1960-2000," Conference Report. Paris: Unesco 1977, p. 16.

Table 4 provides data for specific countries and it is important to note the similarities and differences within and between the sub-regions and countries. Difference in enrollment rates between countries often point to diversity in education development in a particular country. This is partly related to general interest in primary education, individual budget expenditures, and the existence of educational structures at the time of independence.

If a closer examination is made of the enrollment statistics we find wide discrepancies by sex also. Table 3 indicates that female enrollments have grown and will continue to grow; and some regions and countries are becoming more successful in closing the gap.

Beyond School Walls (SEAMES, 1975, pp. 127-128) reports the following statistics on vocational and technical school enrollments for the 13-18 year age group in selected Asian countries. In 1971, Indonesia's vocational and technical school population comprised 34.8% of the age group, with the majority of students enrolled in technical and commercial schools. In 1972, Malaysia had 3.8% of the same age group enrolled, while Thailand (1972) and Philippines (1970) reported percentages of 3.3 and 102, respectively.

Table 3

PERCENTAGE OF ELIGIBLE AGE GROUPS ENROLLED IN SCHOOL BY SEX AND REGIONS

	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23
AFRICA									
Male:	48%	29%	4%	58%	38%	8%	66%	48%	12%
Female:	32%	15%	1%	43%	23%	3%	53%	32%	6%
Differential:	16%	14%	3%	15%	15%	5%	13%	16%	6%
	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23
ASIA*									
Male:	68%	35%	7%	70%	38%	10%	75%	42%	11%
Female:	44%	17%	3%	49%	22%	4%	56%	26%	6%
Differential:	24%	18%	4%	21%	16%	6%	19%	16%	5%
	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23	6-11	12-17	18-23
LATIN-AMERICA									
Male:	64%	45%	12%	79%	59%	24%	86%	70%	35%
Female:	64%	40%	8%	81%	54%	18%	88%	65%	26%
Differential:	0%	5%	4%	-2%	5%	6%	-2%	5%	9%

Source: Serim Timur, "Demographic Correlates of Women's Education--Fertility, Age at Marriage, and the Family," paper prepared for the 18th Central Conference of the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, Mexico City, August, 1977, p. 2/Table 2.

*Not including the People's Republic of China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Socialist Republic of Vietnam, Hong Kong, Republic of Korea, and Japan.

Taken from: Kindervatter, Suzanne. "Promoting Participation of Females," Washington, D.C.: USAID, 1979, p. 8.

TABLE IV

GROWTH RATE AND ENROLLMENT STATISTICS: SELECTED COUNTRIES

Region/Country	Annual Growth Rate in Population (1970-75)	Primary Level Enrollment Ratio by Year	Primary Level Growth Rate by Year	Secondary Level Enrollment Ratio by Year	Secondary Level Growth Rate by Year	Third Level Enrollment Ratio by Year	Third Level Growth Rate by Year
SOUTHERN AFRICA							
Lesotho	2.2	121 in 6-12 age group (75)	2.56 (55-75)	14 in 13-17 age group (74)	14.93 (65-74)	60 in 20-24 age group (75)	3.51 (65-74)
Swaziland	3.2	101 in 6-12 age group (75)	3.36 (65-75)	11 in 13-17 age group (74)	16.22 (65-74)	1.72 in 20-24 age group (75)	23.87 (70-75)
Botswana	2.9	95 in 6-12 age group (75)	4.26 (65-75)	16 in 13-17 age group (75)	16.22 (65-75)	.54 in 20-24 age group (75)	NA
WEST AFRICA							
Mali	2.5	22 in 6-14 age group (74)	3.69 (55-74)	3 in 15-17 age group (74)	12.98 (65-74)	50 in 20-24 age group (74)	32.40 (65-74)
Upper Volta	2.3	14 in 6-11 age group (74)	1.73 (65-74)	2 in 12-18 age group (74)	8.21 (65-74)	.15 in 20-25 age group (74)	35.11 (65-74)
Niger	2.7	17 in 7-12 age group (74)	4.96 (65-74)	2 in 13-19 age group (74)	8.21 (65-74)	.09 in 20-24 age group (74)	29.67 (70-74)
EAST AFRICA							
Kenya	3.5	109 in 5-11 age group (75)	7.28 (55-75)	13 in 12-17 age group (75)	12.51 (65-75)	1.02 in 20-24 age group (74)	15.65 (65-74)
Uganda	2.3	53 in 6-12 age group (75)	-2.32 (65-75)	6 in 13-18 age group (75)	4.74 (65-75)	.56 in 20-24 age group (75)	7.38 (65-75)
Tanzania	2.7	57 in 7-13 age group (75)	5.00 (65-75)	3 in 14-19 age group (75)	4.74 (65-75)	.23 in 20-24 age group (75)	16.69 (65-75)
CARIBBEAN							
Guyana	.9	114 (73)	.33 (65-74)	55 (73)	1.93 (65-73)	3.44 (73)	21.00 (65-73)
CENTRAL AMERICA							
Honduras	3.7	89 (75)	1.07 (65-75)	13 (75)	2.66 (65-75)	4.19 (74)	12.43 (65-74)
El Salvador	3.1	71 (74)	-1.59 (65-74)	17 (74)	1.40 (65-74)	7.69 (74)	13.03 (65-74)
Guatemala	3.2	58 (70)	3.01 (65-70)	11 (70)	6.82 (65-70)	4.22 (75)	6.49 (65-75)
ANDEAN SOUTH AMERICA							
Ecuador	3.5	102 (75)	1.15 (65-75)	38 (75)	3.28 (65-75)	7.66 (70)	18.34 (65-70)
Peru	2.9	111 (75)	1.15 (65-75)	46 (75)	4.72 (65-75)	18.21 (75)	5.96 (65-75)
Bolivia	2.7	72 (74)	.15 (65-74)	21 (70)	3.13 (65-70)	12.2 (75)	5.21 (65-75)
SOUTH ASIA							
Bangladesh	3.0	72 in 5-9 age group (75)	4.07 (65-75)	25 in 10-14 age group (75)	6.76 (65-75)	2.92 in 20-25 age group (75)	16.13 (65-75)
India	2.1	65 in 5-10 age group (75)	1.32 (65-75)	29 in 11-16 age group (75)	12.47 (65-75)	8.45 in 20-24 age group (74)	6.43 (65-74)
Pakistan	3.0	50 in 5-9 age group (75)	2.66 (65-75)	15 in 10-16 age group (75)	3.57 (65-75)	2.50 in 20-25 age group (70)	7.27 (65-70)

Source: Compiled from AID data, 1978.

School enrollment rates, as pointed out earlier, mean little unless dropout and retention rates are considered. UNESCO (1977a, p. 2) estimates that of the pupils enrolled in grade 1 in 1965 and 1970 only about 50% and 54% respectively reached grade 4. In African schools, the percentage reaching grade 4 was 61% for the 1965 cohort and 72% for the 1970 cohort. It was also estimated that the number of children admitted into primary school in these regions in 1970 could have been increased by some 15-20% without increasing costs had there been no repetition.

Literacy Rates. A second factor to consider when examining the educational profile of the out-of-school youth population is the literacy rate.* In the period of 1970 to 1990, absolute numbers in the 15 and over age group will show a growth from 742 million illiterates in 1970 to 884 million in 1990. During the same period the number of literates will rise from 1,548 million to 2,560 million.

The following tables (5 and 6) illustrate the estimated illiteracy for selected Asian and African countries. There are discrepancies by region, country and

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*There are discrepancies in definitions and measurement techniques when examining literacy data ranging from the ability to write one's name to a level of literacy equivalent to four years of primary school.

by sex, as in the earlier examples of school enrollment. Most statistical reports indicate that adolescent girls are more likely to be literate than their mothers. However, the likelihood of their remaining literate is doubtful due to limited access to formal and nonformal education opportunities in which they have a chance to practice what they have learned in the formal school setting (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 32).

Table 5

LITERACY IN ASIAN COUNTRIES BY SEX

Country	Year	Age	Male	Female
Sri Lanka	1969	15+	89.4	72.4
Thailand	1970	15+	87.2	70.3
Turkey	1970	15+	69.1	33.6
Syria	1970	15+	59.6	20.0
India	1971	15+	46.4	18.9
Nepal	1971	15+	22.4	2.6
Philippines	1970	10+	84.6	82.2
Malaysia	1970	10+	72.1	49.6
Indonesia	1971	10+	70.8	49.0
India	1971	10+	49.3	22.2

Source: B. K. Nayar and Ruchira Nayar, "Education and Employment in Rural India," Literacy Work, Vol. 7, No. 4, Tehran: IIALM, 1978, p. 65.

Table 6

ESTIMATES AND PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY 15+ BY SEX,
1970-2000, SELECTED COUNTRIES
(Numbers in parentheses - Total Illiterates in thousands)

	1970	1980	1990
SOUTHERN AFRICA			
Lesotho	37% (650.17)	31% (774.7)	19.5% (953.8)
M	50.5	42.5	25.7
F	25.5	20.0	13.5
Botswana	72.5 (323.9)	60.0 (437.4)	37.2 (576.4)
M	72.2	61.7	35.3
F	72.7	58.6	38.8
WEST AFRICA			
Mali	93.2 (2856.3)	89.9 (3581.4)	84.2 (4620.4)
M	86.8	81.4	73.3
F	99.5	98.2	94.9
Niger	95.9 (2173.1)	94.8 (2830.2)	89.9 (3763.5)
M	92.2	89.9	82.5
F	99.5	99.5	97.0
Upper Volta	95.4 (3077)	95.4 (3801.3)	93.3 (4850.4)
M	91.2	91.2	88.0
F	99.5	99.5	98.5
EAST AFRICA			
Kenya	68.6 (6095.2)	50.4 (8279.6)	30.8 (11606.8)
M	51.5	35.7	19.5
F	85.6	64.9	42.0
Uganda	66.2 (5494.1)	52.1 (7274.1)	43.2 (9879.4)
M	47.2	35.6	28.6
F	85.0	68.5	57.7
Tanzania	63.1 (7251.6)	52.5 (9613.5)	36.6 (13105.2)
M	47.5	38.3	24.3
F	78.2	66.1	48.5

Source: Compiled from UNESCO, Estimates and Projections of Illiteracy, 1978, pp. 83-110.

Involvement in nonformal education. Youth involvement in out-of-school programs is a third important fact to consider in the educational profile. The authors of New Paths to Learning (Coombs, Prosser, and Ahmed, 1973, p. 57) estimated that, at best, only 10% of the out-of-school youth in any given country were served by such programs. Another source suggests that the proportion may be as low as 1.5%:

> Through regional conferences and staff missions of the Young World Food and Development Project of the FAO, it was possible to estimate that only 1.5 per cent of the rural youth, ages 12-25, were organized in out-of-school youth activities including youth groups. Between this survey in 1967 and the World Food Congress (1970), not much progress was made in organizing rural youth, so the Congress underlined the "need for more massive systems of practical, informal and functional education programmes capable of reaching the large body of out-of-school youth." (Coombs, et al, 1973, p. 57)

Most nonformal education offerings accommodate only a few hundred youth in limited geographical areas. However, there are some national programs which claim a higher participation rate: Korea's 4-H clubs estimated 600,000 youths in 1972; the rural education scheme of Upper Volta claimed to have 20,000 youths involved; ACPO in Colombia, in 1968, estimated their mass media program had 167,000 listeners, 50% of whom were over 15; and the Mobile Trades Training School program in Thailand reported 23,000 students in 1971 (Coombs, et al, 1973, pp. 55-56).

Employment Profile.* The numbers of unemployed youth are still continuing to grow at staggering rates all over the world. For the 15-25 age group, unemployment rates range from 80% in Mauritius, 72% in Kenya, 82% in Sri Lanka to an overall rate of 50% in the Caribbean region, as illustrated in the following table.

Table 7

SELECTED UNEMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS:
CARICOM REGION° - 1970

	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
	(unemployed ooo's)			(unemployment rate %)		
Total Labour Force	111.3	53.3	164.6	12.75	14.48	13.26
By Age 15-19	54.4	27.6	82.0	48.14	54.76	50.18
20+	56.9	25.7	82.6	7.49	8.09	7.67
MDC	104.6	48.5	153.1	13.79	15.60	14.32
LDC	6.7	4.8	11.5	5.83	8.39	6.68
No exam passed	101.0	45.8	146.8	13.33	15.92	14.05

°Exclusive of Antigua

Source: Official Statistics on Caricom from: Commonwealth Secretariat, The Young Unemployed: A Caribbean Problem, London: Commonwealth Secretaria, 1975, p. 68.

*As with the literacy statistics, data for this area must be examined with caution due to the difficulties in obtaining a uniform definition of "employment" and "economically active." A 1969 OECD survey exhibits a side range of ages and categories for the "economically active" population: Libya's labor force is made up of anyone 6 years of age and over; Honduras' labor force is anyone 10 years and over; and Morocco limits their statistics by excluding female Muslims in the 15-64 age group.

The table illustrates the difference between males and females regarding unemployment ratios. Usually participation in the labor force in any given country depends upon customs, social mores, religion and income levels, and in some cases, ethnic affiliation. And, as typical of many developing countries, most economically active young women are involved in some type of agricultural activity.

Other factors: One factor to consider when examining the out-of-school youth population is the rural/urban profile. According to a 1970 United Nations' survey (Gill, 1977, p. 13), 70-85% of the youth of the developing countries grow up in the rural areas with estimates that more than 90% of that number are out-of-school youth with the majority being illiterate. The place of origin may be a decisive factor in youth's access to education and employment.

In addition, ethnic and cultural heritage play a role in the opportunities and benefits given to certain out-of-school youth groups as well as tribal or political affiliation. And, as was evidenced in previous sections, differences due to sex continue to influence the directions young men and women can pursue.

Needs of Youth and Their Programmatic Responses

Context.

> From a safe non partisan distance, a discussion of the needs of out-of-school youth would appear a relatively easy topic to address. However, an examination of the literature on the topic produces immediate difficulties distinguishing the differences between 'needs,' 'wants,' 'rights,' and 'problems' of the group under discussion and the necessity of viewing needs at the individual level as well as at the level of the collective. (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 40)

With this problem in mind it is also appropriate to point out again that most of those involved in identifying the needs and problems of youth are often far removed from the specific situation that youth are involved in. The youth themselves have had little opportunity to contribute to definitions of their own needs. The literature on youth defining their own needs is absent from the shelves of most libraries on development.

One approach to definition of needs is through Abraham Maslow's hierarchy which ranges from basic necessities to the need for self actualization (1971). In addition, the strength and appropriateness of any one need at any given time can be explained through the factors of motivation and desire (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, pp. 26-28). Consideration must also be given to the perceived availability of meeting a need for both the

individual and the collective. The Khit pen* philosophy compliments these theories by saying that when one attempts to solve a problem (i.e. meet a need), individual needs, past knowledge and experience and the degree to which the environment can influence that decision must be taken into consideration.

The above theoretical framework provides a base from which the United Nations family, private organizations, international assistance organizations, government bodies and private researchers attempt to further define the needs of youth in the world.

The United Nations, in its Universal Declaration of Rights and Responsibilities (Coombs, 1973, p. 30) states that youth deserve certain rights in addition to what they need to become more active citizens and adults. Among these is the right to health derived from a person's basic right to life. This includes the provision of information about growth and development through the adolescent period, family planning services, nutrition, disease and mental health, for example.

A second and third right are those related to education and work. How each of these rights is trans-

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*A Thai philosophy adapted by the Department of Nonformal Education in Thailand, which can be roughly translated as problem solving, rational thinking or decision making.

lated into legislation and development work in national settings and how these rights are, in turn, protected are critical factors related to youth.

A popular notion, currently being studied by such organizations as the World Bank, UNICEF, UNESCO, and the Food and Agricultural Organization, is the provision of programs relating to basic needs and services. Included under this category are needs concerned with: improved quality of life, nutrition and basic food production, adequate shelter, maternal and child health care, basic education and appropriate technologies to lighten the tasks of women and girls.

Phillips (1975) defines these needs as "survival" or fundamental needs. They include the need for skills and knowledge to secure sufficient food, drink and shelter to sustain life, and means to protect one's family and self against hostile elements; the need for communication within one's social group; the need to share a set of values, beliefs, and types of behavior which is compatible with sustaining the integrity and continuity of the society. According to Phillips, the needs of one-third to one-half of the world's rural families fall into this sector.

Coombs (1973, pp. 13-14) offers a similar description of a "minimal package of learning needs." Included

in this package are positive attitudes, functional literacy and numeracy, a scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature, functional knowledge and skills for earning a living, and functional knowledge and skills for civic participation.

While most organizations have done extensive reseach on the needs of the rural poor, publication of a recent World Bank survey on urban needs (Phillips, 1978, I, pp. 1-6) is noteworthy. The development-related and individual needs of urban poor were defined as: the need for employment prospects and income raising possibilities; the need for productivity when at work; the need for social and economic mobility; the need to improve conditions at homes and within the family; and the need for adjustment to civil and cultural norms and opportunities.

Kahler and Droegkamp (1980) identified the three categories of needs that have the greatest effect upon youth's involvement in and impact upon development: knowledge, skills and needs related to employment; needs related to greater access to educational and training resources and opportunities not related to employment; and needs related to participation. The rest of this study will use these categories to continue the discussion on needs of youth and their programmatic responses. Isolation of these areas is not meant to devalue the other

areas of needs but separates out those areas of highest priority.

The projects that have been included are meant to serve as examples; they are not meant to illustrate the best of the youth programs, or the worst. They merely serve as a point of reference to examine types of programs as related to youth needs.

Employment needs of out-of-school youth. Data across the world substantiate the statements that youth have little or no employment opportunities despite the attempts of governments and international organizations to give every young person the right to work. In areas of Asia, as seen in Sri Lanka, unemployment figures for 1969-70 indicate that 82% of those unemployed were youth. In Mauritius, 1973 figures showed 80% of the unemployed rested in the 15-24 age group. And in the industrial areas of Mexico the rate of unemployment in the 12-24 age group was 20% (Medina, Izquierdo and Ahmed, 1978, p. 27).

If these figures are considered side by side with the rapid population growth in most developing countries, it is little wonder that educational and development planners have begun to take the youth unemployment figures seriously. "Although the agricultural sector remains the main source of the labor market in low income countries,

the industrial labor market, where present, has expanded, but at a rate which can only absorb between 20 to 30% of each year's labor force" (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 51).

Increased education has made youth more mobile and demanding of higher earnings in jobs previously reserved for the less educated. However, in many countries expansion of education has been linked to increased unemployment among those recently graduated. In Sri Lanka, figures in a World Bank report state that almost 20% of secondary school graduates were unemployed in the early 1970's (1979, p. 47). And conversely the lack of education and access to training in the rural areas has increased the gap between youth who reside in two very different geographical environments.

It should be noted that although the purpose of this next section is to discuss the employment needs of youth and not the prerequisite structural changes needed to create employment opportunities once the youth have had the training, one aspect cannot be discussed in isolation of the other. Recognition is given to the fact that economic structures need to change or be modified along side training for youth.

In the traditional sector there is and will be a continued need for those willing to work on the land and

work with their hands. Therefore, programmatic options will have to deal with agricultural and vocational training with emphasis on income generating skills and skills related to the occupations ancillary to agricultural activities. In addition there is a need for management and marketing training.

Many of the skills needed to work in the traditional sector have been offered through indigenous informal learning arrangements, nonformal education programs with vocational/technical components, primary schools and training through agricultural projects or agric-business.

In the formal sector of the economy, the number of positions opening each year are limited and highly competitive. Therefore youth will need a specific set of vocational and technical skills to qualify for the small number of positions. Most of this training is through related trade training courses. Other options for training are being taken up by on-the-job training in industry, inservice training, and direct contracts between industry and private organizations.

As small businesses continue to grow and provide limited opportunities for youth in the urban areas, skills needed will focus on marketing, distribution services, management, knowledge of export/import tasks, and specific technical skills.

Recognition should also be given to the fact that governments in most countries are the largest employers in the formal sector. One area that is becoming an area for youth employment is the use of paraprofessionals in the health, education and agriculture fields: facilitators, animators, extension agents, walking teachers, and community organizors. Training needs would then center around skills needed for such service functions.

A third sector of the economy that is often ignored or overlooked is the increasing informal sector, sometimes referred to as the "unorganized" or "murkey" sector. In recent years there is a growing recognition that it is here where there is the greatest amount of employment opportunities for urban youth. Currently from 20% to 50% of those working in the cities are employed in this sector (Ashe, 1981). "In many countries, there is a growing awareness that the informal sector provides training for much of the person-power necessary for the modern sector either through apprenticeship learning, on-the-job training or a variety of informal learning arrangements" (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 57).

The main kinds of activities in this sector center on manufacturing services such as building, auto repair, carpentry, woodworking, in addition to those services as food sellers, messengers, and other associated jobs.

Training for such jobs usually is on the job or through an arrangement between the young person and the craftsman.

The literature makes obvious that one group of youth emerge as having the greatest employment needs among job seekers. This group is comprised of those youth who have had some schooling and for various reasons have been "pushed out" of the system or have dropped out. Their problems center on the following:

1. Formal education has aroused expectations among the youth and their parents, many of whom sacrificed a better living for their families for school expenditures.

2. This is the group that commonly tends to migrate from the rural areas to the urban areas in hopes of finding employment. This brings on a growth that most cities are unprepared to handle.

3. The problem is a cumulative one, with the number of youth entering the labor market much greater than the number of jobs available.

4. The educational expenditures that have been invested in this group have payoffs which are delayed or non existent.

5. Responses to youth employment needs are as diverse as the particular context within which each individual is placed.

6. Within this group there are the special problems of the rural youth and the female school leaver, as well as the special needs of linguistic and ethnic minorities.

As far back as the early 1920's attempts were made to ruralize or vocationalize the curriculum of the primary schools in hopes that education would be more relevant and useable for the school leaver. Current examples of these include efforts in Cuba, Tanzania, and the Centres d'Education Rurales (CER) in Upper Volta.

Other attempts at such programs have encompassed a variety of skills building outside the formal education system ranging from pre-vocational training, apprenticeships, entrepreneurial and management training, agricultural skills training, and vocational and technical training for industry. Examples of these include the Opportunities Industrialization Centers springing up all over Africa; the Tunisian Pre-Apprenticeship Centers; the Mobile Trade Training Units in Thailand; the Xavier Institute in India; and the Botswana Brigades.

Equal Access to Training/Education Resource Needs

When youth take a long look at the training opportunities and the educational advantages that are offered to them, they are quick to notice the disparities between these that have and those that don't have. Both

formal and nonformal educational schemes tend to favor some groups over others and tend to challenge the United Nations declaration that all youth have the "right" to education.

To formulate a framework for the discussion on this topic, this study will use a modification of Coomb's basic learning package: functional literacy and numeracy, scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the proceses of nature, functional knowledge and skills for raising a family and operating a household, and access to other training and opportunity structures.

Literacy and Numeracy. Most developing countries have acknowledged literacy as a focus for the out-of-school population, of which youth is a part. "The significance of literacy in the education of out-of-school youth, and adults as well, lies in the assumption that in order to engage in modernization processes more educated people are required. However literacy is defined, it is considered as the minimum level of education which will enable people to take part in development" (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 87).

Most literacy programs are not created for youth as an isolated group but are in combination with adults as well as tied to other aspects of training. Types of literacy programs which include youth focus on mass

literacy campaigns, functional literacy, traditional literacy, consciousness raising, and follow-up training offered as a last attempt to help youth enter the job market. Specific examples of such programs are JAMAL (the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy) which attempts to mobilize marginal resources; the Saveh Project of Iran which encouraged the social and economic promotion of Iranian women and girls: and the ALFIN program in Peru, designed to do consciousness raising.

Scientific Outlook and an Elementary Understanding of the Processes of Nature. Gill (1977, p. 46) points out that

> one of the main problems in the rural areas of less developed countries has been a lack of scientific attitude on the part of the people. As a result of the relative lack of appreciation of the contributions of science to productive processes and in daily living, the decisions (about the environment) are often made on the basis of non-rational, traditional, and often superstitious thinking.

Young people over the world have felt the need to become involved in "sounding the alarm" on various activities which have a negative impact on development and the protection of the social and natural environment.

Responses to these alarms have been basically through community and development projects which have an environmental component. "Save the Land Harambee" is a five year aforestation program in Kenya which will employ

over 2500 young people in planting and tending over 5 million trees. A rural health extension program was developed in Guatemala which emphasizes training of auxiliary health personnel. A related program is the Nutritional Rehabilitation Centers of Tanzania which train female school leavers to work in the Ujamaa villages in the area of nutrition and child care.

In addition, 4-H clubs and Boy Scouts and Girl Guides make a valuable contribution in this area by training their participants for such activities as clean-up campaigns, water supply problems, and practical activities in land use and animal husbandry.

Functional Knowledge and Skills for Raising a Family and Operating a Household. In discussing the needs of youth in this section it is important to raise such questions as: is it traditional to have females only in such programs? are there attempts at instruction for males? what are the cultural constraints for programming? are there differences in urban and rural needs? and, what are the differences in the needs between those women who are bearing children and those who are preparing for other roles?

In most societies these needs are commonly expressed in relation to the females in that environment. It is

their role to take care of the needs of the household and the family and therefore, it is they who need access to education and training as well as information to enhance those roles. To illustrate this point, a summary statement of the Centers for Rural Girls of Tunisia for 12-18 year old girls to gain training in skills for better home and family life and literacy explains: "Generally it has been found that girls who received this training are more desirable marriage partners than their untrained peers" (Sheffield and Diejomaoh, 1972, p. 97).

The Foyers Feminins of Morocco and the Promotion Nationale run parallel and often competitive centers for girls and women, and school leavers in home economics and child care skills. The Functional Literacy Program of Thailand attempts to extend this instruction to males. In samples taken in 1971-72, two-thirds of the students in the Thai family life planning program were males and approximately 30% were from the 15-24 age group. Other examples include community development programs with family life education components as in ACPO in Colombia, PENMAS activities in Indonesia, and the Sarvodaya Movement in Sri Lanka.

Access to Other Opportunity/Educational Structures.

There is no denying that in some countries there exists a need for young people to gain certification

through formal schooling as a way of achieving recognition in the economic and educational realms. Second chance schemes are a way of providing academic qualifications for equivalency with the formal school offerings. Examples of such programs include the Lesotho Distance Teaching Center and the Thai Equivalency program.

Another opportunity which young people have expressed a need to gain access to is some type of vocational guidance program. This may be the best way to make the maximum use of the human resources of any given country and community, in addition to assisting the individual achieve his/her maximum potential. While this service has been a part of the formal school system it is just recently being used in the nonformal education sector. This need will be the topic of discussion for the rest of the study and, therefore, will not be further explained in detail.

Participation needs. Most often participation needs have generally been viewed as political. However, participation should be viewed as both a means and an end for youth. As a means, participation needs center on the desire for youth to have more control over their lives and the improvement of those lives. As an end, participation needs focus on having a share in the control of one's

environment and the power structure in a given situation.

Participation needs of youth in out-of-school programs are generally related to community and national development. These programs include those which give youth experiences in leadership and decision making as well as information about their particular social and political environment and how they can participate in that structure.

Examples of such programs include the Future Citizen's Schools run by the YMCA in Ethiopia; the Citizenship and Leadership Training Centers in Lagos; and the youth camp schemes of West and East Africa, the Caribbean and South Asia. The voluntary youth service programs in Jamaica, India and Guyana are an attempt to bridge the gap between the concept of participation and every day life. Other examples include the Village Level Functional Literacy Project in the Gambia, where out-of-school youth are involved as village facilitators in literacy courses for other out-of-school youth, and the Kuliah Kerja Nyata (the Indonesian Students' Study and Service Scheme) where students in higher education participate in village level development programs.

Youth Policies and Directions

Recognizing the situation of youth in the world--their needs, problems, and frustrations--and formulating policies to cope with these are two different matters.

In the 1960's, youth were regarded much differently than today. In a 1968 UNESCO report, the key words of the decade were: "confrontation-contestation," "marginalization," "counter-culture," "counter-power," and "youth culture." The terms are insufficient to describe the real impact of youth. Most of the identifiable youth group that was researched at the time were urban, middle-class, university students, while rural, working-class youth and undereducated, poor youth were not discussed. Hence, youth policies of the industrialized nations dealt with only a special segment of the youth population and their demands for "authentic relationships," "honest communication between people," and change in the role of traditional institutions in modern society.

"These student movements were based on a key assumption, seemingly timeless in the 1960's but of questionable validity for the problems of the 1980's: a faith in ever-increasing material abundance" (UNESCO, 1980, p. 15). Youth shared a belief that the institutions that secured this abundance should be more human, and that values and ideas related to this prosperity must be

changed. Questions of quality of life and life-style were the ones being addressed by governments and international organizations dealing with youth.

As countries in the third world began their quest for independence and began setting their own national priorities for economic and social goals, many of their assumptions were also based on the belief in the prosperity and stability of the world's economic system. Youth's goals concentrated on training programs which were to use the talents of the young to take part in this prosperity. The youth revolution of the industrialized cities was spread to the third world through global communications and raised the myths, dreams, and aspirations of those youth whose lives were far different from their peers in North America and Europe.

Now in the 1980's, countries are facing an even greater political and developmental challenge in the face of economic realities. The programs and policies that were promoted internationally are not going to work. Countries are changing their attitudes--and actions--toward youth: rather than only a problem, youth is seen now as a possible resource. Existing institutions and organizations regarded as representing the interests of youth are beginning to examine their actions in view of the statistical bulge that youth are creating world-wide.

A survey of youth policy in nonindustrialized countries reveals a wide range of commitment and attention. Some countries concentrate on education and health for youth; others speak of national service and youth camps, while others offer "crash" courses as emergency responses to outright demands of youth. Some few prefer to hope that by ignoring their youth, the problem will go away, and thus have no stated policy.

Several problems occur that cause the wide discrepancies in commitment to youth. As stated earlier, identification of needs and problems of youth are often not done by youth themselves but by others who are far-removed from the realities of the youth situation. The lack of first-hand observations and discussions with youth, in addition to an absence of literature and documents written on youth's responses, have led to a misreading of the situation and policy statements that are both unresponsive and ineffective.

A second factor contributing to poor youth policy and programs is the difficulty encountered when searching for well-documented case studies of projects and programs in developing countries. There is only just now emerging a body of literature on youth programs with evaluation sections that can be used by planners. Policy makers are beginning to take advantage of other countries' experiences

with youth and using their triumphs and defeats as a basis for their own policy and commitment.

Thirdly, a philosophy of a country and its development plan is often unclear in relation to youth. When development plans speak of community and national development for youth, are they speaking to programs of leadership training and experience and involvement in decision making, or are they really talking about cheap labor for road building and a way of keeping youth "off the streets and quiet"? Is the rhetoric about participation real or just token? Are the benefits of the programs equally distributed between the youth and the country or village? Do youth "own" the programs or are they "mandated" by the national government?

A fourth concern centers around existing youth policies and their impact on institutions and organizations which have conflicting attitudes about youth's role vis a vis the political actions of the country. Youth are sometimes manipulated to believe that they are taking part in national development when they are merely agents of a particular political leader. Politicians force their own ideas and principles on youth rather than allowing youth to create their own programs as a group or, individually, to make their own choices regarding political involvement. And depending upon age and status in a country, youth often

have little or no voting power or political influence of their own.

Part of the discussion in Chapter VI will make recommendations regarding youth policies as they relate to the needs and programs of out-of-school youth.

Summary

To compile a list of characteristics of the needs and problems of out-of-school youth is a difficult task, given the complexities of the changing social and economic situation of the world and the changes that are occuring within each country, each village and within each individual young adult. However, the foregoing discussion would seem to center on these common issues: institutional inadequacies; youth frustration over new roles and responsibilities without the accompanying rights; unrealistic job aspirations; disparities and conflict between rural and urban youth; lack of communication between and among youth and adults; and self perception as part of a group regarded as a "problem."

The statistical dimensions of the youth situation show that more youth are being given a chance to attend some sort of formal school although disparities occur between geographical division, sex, and the amount of educational resources available. Literacy and nonformal

education statistics reveal that youth are still not being adequately taken care of in these programs, and the labor force statistics indicate an even grimmer picture of youth involvement in the economy.

Programs have attempted to respond to youth needs in various ways: employment related programs, equal access to other training and education resources, and schemes centering on participation. Most of these responses have focussed on a narrow definition of youth needs and have not addressed a range of other issues related to: transfer of skills to a village atmosphere/ situation; pre-vocational training and decisions regarding choices of employment; access to information about the self and the world of work; services to support entrance into the world of work; creation of a forum to discuss youth needs and problems; and provision of skills for youth to relate to others.

Youth policies have also fallen short of helping youth cope with their unresolved needs and problems. As youth's status and demographic statistics have changed over the past twenty years, governments have had increased problems with defining their policies about youth and providing programs.

UNESCO (1980) has recommended that development workers and youth policy makers will have to find alternative models and programs for youth involvement that correspond more closely to the affective needs of youth and of the society as a whole. Such programs must relate more closely to people's everyday experiences. A program component and service that would complement the existing offerings for youth is vocational guidance. Chapter III will examine the dimensions of vocational guidance, with specific reference to out-of-school youth in developing countries.

C H A P T E R I I I

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Introduction

A definition of vocational guidance requires consideration of the context within which it exists. In conceptualizing vocational guidance for the National Vocational Guidance Association, Katz (1966) suggested that "one cannot discuss what vocational guidance is (content), without indicating what it does (process), what it is for (purpose), who is involved (participants), in what place and at what time (setting)" (Hanson, 1970, p. 4). Using the Katz framework, this chapter will examine vocational guidance through a survey of the relevant literature. This will serve as a base for comparing and contrasting its implementation in industrialized and non-industrialized countries, with emphasis on the out-of-school population.

This chapter will answer the following questions: what is vocational guidance? where and when it is used? what is its purpose? what is the process? and who is involved in it? The last section explores the vocational guidance program in Lesotho as the specific context for the issues raised in the final section of the study.

What is Vocational Guidance

Definitions of the term range from the most restricted use to an all-encompassing interpretation. Parsons (1908), an early pioneer in the field, labeled vocational guidance as a means for aiding young people to choose an occupation, prepare themselves for it, find an opening in it, and build up a career of efficiency and success. This definition is still used in many in-school and out-of-school programs in the United States and around the world in spite of its obvious limitations and bias towards certain societal and economic constraints.

Ginzberg and some of his colleagues (1971), at a much later stage, focus on its function of helping individuals take advantage of the available educational, training and occupational opportunities. Sanderson (1954), and Jones, Stefflre and Stewart (1970), simply state that vocational guidance is concerned with the individual and his/her choices and adjustment to the world of work.

The above definitions were made by practitioners and theorists in the United States. In other parts of the world, vocational guidance is defined variously. Thus, it comes to mean:

> --helping a person choose work in which he will feel reasonably contented; guiding one towards a completely absorbing career--a vocation for life (Zambia) (Ministry of Education, Lesotho, 1973).

--to develop an individual's ability for self choice in career planning. (Japan) (Drapela, 1979).

--helping an individual recognize strengths and limitations, and coordinating one's striving with the demands of society and the national economy. (Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland) (Drapela, 1979).

--offering occupational information and working with the young worker in making career decisions according to societal needs. (Soviet Union) (Drapela, 1979).

--helping young people gain the most effective means to use their education for individual and national development. (Nigeria) (Drapela, 1979).

How each country arrives at its definition depends on many factors. Vocational guidance is interwoven with political and social philosophies, in the context of economic, historical, and traditional factors. In addition there are individual attributes of personality, culture, intellect, biological limitations and strengths--all impacting on choices and adjustment.

Where and When is Vocational Guidance Done?

As seen above, guidance is being practiced in all parts of the world, both in highly technologically advanced countries and in those at other stages of development. Each country has its own peculiar social problems, growing primarily out of its geography and its history. As these will impact upon occupational choice and adjustment, they should be taken into consideration when determining how

vocational guidance programs are to be defined and implemented. In addition, educational philosophies and national ideas come into play when one considers the setting of vocational guidance.

Underlying some of these differences is the matter of freedom of choice.

> To the degree that such a principle operates, the choices to be made are unique to each individual, and consequently, far more complex than in situations where many constraints or imperatives operate to limit the individual's field of alternatives or his freedom to sort among them. (Herr, 1974, p. 556)

However, even within countries there are conflicts depending on regional needs and differences, as well as administrative and political differences. National policies have been formulated in most countries but how they are implemented varies.

When vocational guidance is applied has a great deal to do with its definition in a particular context. When many third world countries were confronted with the hard facts that they were not utilizing their human resources in effective and efficient ways, they turned to guidance as a way of solving this problem.

> Societies throughout the world are in transition. In some cases, the changes they are undergoing are revolutionary and in others evolutionary. It is a rare nation, if it exists, which is not influenced by turmoil surrounding its economic climate, belief systems, value structure, employment or unemployment

> rate, educational provisions, male/female relationships or other emphasis. (Drapela, 1979, p. vi).

Coupled with the growing awareness of change in the social and economic bases of various countries came the recognition that children and youth are the "people of the future." In a United Nations study of the processes of economic and social development, Singer (1972) posed the argument that expenditures for children is the most important part of human development. Among the principles in UNICEF's Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1974) is "equal opportunity to develop his abilities, his individual judgement, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society" (Drapela, 1979, p. v). Such conclusions clearly indicate that there should be a mechanism whereby children and youth can learn about themselves and the opportunities available to them in selecting social and occupational options.

Drapela explains how change is affecting the individual:

> The changes in national geography, political systems and economic circumstances which are occurring throughout the world ultimately affect every individual in a particular society and, indeed, frequently those in other societies as well. Sometimes these effects are direct; sometimes they are indirect. Nevertheless, these changes affect the feelings of security people have about themselves and their environment; how they relate to other people, the achievement motives which they are likely to

> pursue; their knowledge about and feelings of ability to master the opportunities available. (Drapela, 1979, p. v)

What is the Purpose of Vocational Guidance?

How each individual country answers this question depends on the context and setting of that sociopolitical environment. The characteristics of individual societies determine the purpose of vocational guidance and the types of questions and concerns that are of priority importance.

Watts and Herr (1976) have dealt with this question and identified four possible aims of vocational guidance:

1. Vocational guidance is seen as "an agent of social control, adapting individuals to the career opportunities which realistically are open to them" (p. 135).
2. Vocational guidance is an agent of social change, from a Marxist point of view, where individuals are given the skills and attitudes to contribute actively to the creation of a more humane and just economic system.
3. Vocational guidance is an agent of individual change. Youth are made aware of the existing values of the society and made to see how these negatively and positively affect their own aspirations and decision.

4. The non-directive approach aims to "make students more aware of the full range of opportunities. . . making them more autonomous in choosing the alternative suited to their needs and preferences" (p. 136).

The authors consider the fourth option to be more pluralistic than the others. The first two focus on societal needs, whereas the last two emphasize those of the individual.

In her study of the career guidance program in Botswana, Kann (1981) turned the above classifications into a continuum which she placed on a diagram in combination with a social change-status quo continuum. Her system accounts for the societal aspect of vocational (career) guidance programs.

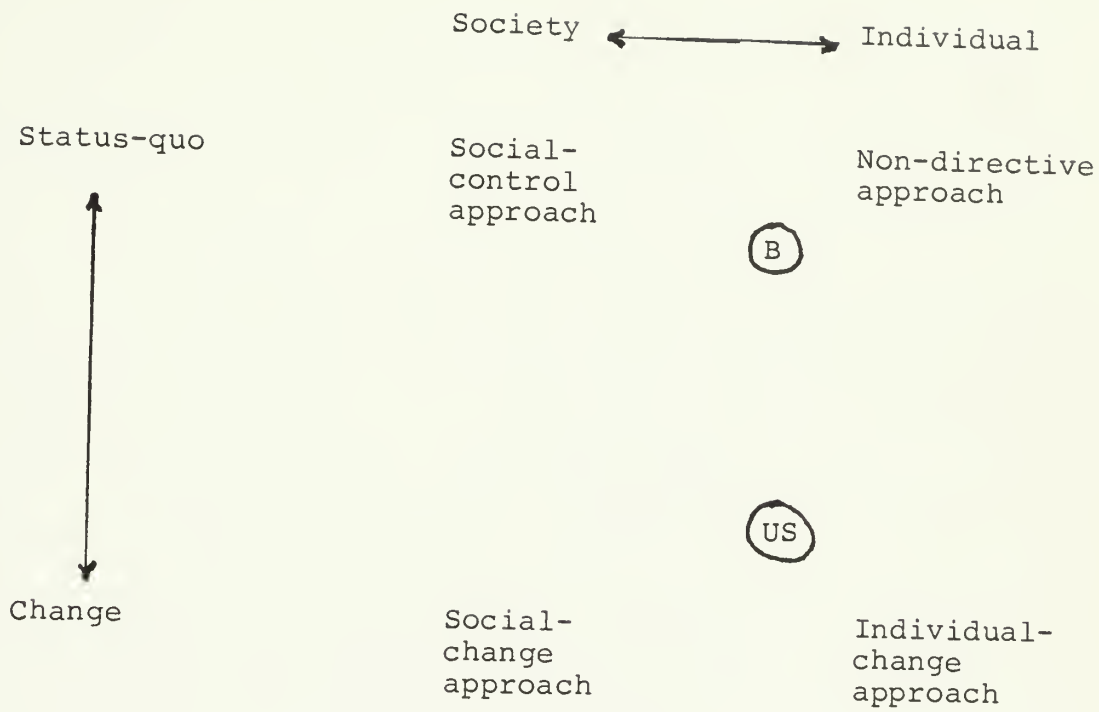


Figure 1: Two dimensional classification system for vocational guidance programs based on Kann (1981, p. 165).

Kann placed Botswana (B) in the area of the non-directive approach and argued that most government organized programs are to be found on the status-quo end of the continuum with varying degrees of focus on the individual or society. Most vocational guidance programs for out-of-school youth in the United States (US), on the other hand, emphasize an individual change approach although this too varies with the counselor and the particular goals of the program. In the last section of the chapter, a diagnosis will be given of where Lesotho falls on this two-dimensional scale.

Super (1974) identified a conflict of purpose between guidance for manpower utilization or for human development. He examined a variety of documents on vocational guidance and noted that countries differed in their approach. Some viewed its purpose as an instrument of national policy to meet manpower goals and needs. Others stressed the importance of identifying and developing individual talents and skills for both individual and societal benefit. In a speech in 1954, Super drew the following conclusion from his research:

> When economic and political pressures are great, those who formulate guidance policies tend to stress the importance of directing and training manpower to meet these economic and social needs. When. . . the economy is healthy and the international situation is peaceful those who formulate guidance polity

> tend to emphasize the importance of self-fulfillment and the contribution which vocational guidance can make to social welfare and to personal happiness. (Herr, 1974, p. 71)

Super leaves us with two fundamental questions that relate to this conflict:

> 1. Are the theorists and practitioners of vocational guidance merely the tools of national policies? Or are there values which transcend economic conditions and political considerations, humanistic values which are permanent and paramount regardless of particular situations?
>
> 2. If guidance theory and national policy appear to conflict, which should be questioned, and how should the conflict be resolved? (Super, 1974, p. 72)

These questions are not easily answered. C. H. Lindsey, International Labor Organization (ILO) expert in youth employment, placement and vocational guidance, looks at the dilemma this way: vocational guidance must be seen in relation to what kind of thinking "needs to be done if the best use is to be made of a country's human resources--often, in a newly developing country, its main source of national wealth." Lindsey adds,

> If people do not know what needs to be done, or will not do it, or want to do things which they cannot do then many will find themselves in work they cannot do well, or in which they are unhappy, or will be unemployed even where there could be work for them, whilst the country will suffer from work done badly and without pride, or from the loss of national wealth when work which could be done remains undone. (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1974(a), p. 141)

What is the Process of Vocational Guidance?

In advanced industrial and commercial countries, vocational guidance programs may involve individual counseling with highly trained personnel, aptitude and interest testing, career planning, and placement services. However, in the case of many third world countries, with high unemployment rates among youth, few employment opportunities in the formal sector, untrained personnel and high population rates, such programs may not be realistic.

Most vocational guidance programs variously combine in-school and out-of-school activities aimed at the youth population between 12 and 22. In the United States, as well as other countries which follow its model, most vocational guidance has centered around the school and the services provided to its students. In the seventy plus years of its existence, very sophisticated methods have been developed which deal with all aspects of the individual, the work world, and the interaction between the two. Examles of recent innovative programs include:

1. Apprenticeships/work-experiences
2. Behavioral counseling
3. Closed-circuit television
4. Computer-oriented career development courses

5. Curriculum offerings in the elementary, secondary and tertiary institutions
6. Services in community agencies
7. Aptitude, interest, intelligence testing
8. Guidance for leisure/avocational counseling
9. Group work with parents, community leaders, employers, labor unions, etc.
10. Vocational counseling for adults

Most of these services are delivered in groups or individually by highly trained personnel. Where paraprofessionals are used, there still occurs a high amount of inservice, on-the-job or professional training. These professional and paraprofessionals have access to a large amount of information and are able to update that information to meet the changing needs of the occupational situation.

Other countries in the so-called industrialized category have their own way of delivering vocational guidance services. In Canada, for example, these include appraisal services, counseling, information services, consulting, placement, follow-up and orientation, usually within the formal school system. In Western Europe, there are normally vocational guidance centers outside of the school system which focus on job placement and short-term employment services.

Many third world countries use the American or British model of vocational guidance, adapting it to their particular educational system. Most countries have trained teachers to take the role of counselors in the secondary/high schools. Services in countries like Senegal, Zambia, Liberia, and Ghana take the form of providing group and individual counseling to students about to leave the system or to go on to the next highest level. They provide information about tertiary education, modern sector employment opportunities, and other skill or training opportunities. Some services incorporate general aptitude and vocational skill testing into their programs while others use tracer studies as part of their manpower development strategies. Recently Lesotho and Botswana have tried to extend services to school leavers through the use of career guidance radio and informational booklets.

For out-of-school youth, the provision of guidance services in developing countries has been weak and not always implemented as planned. "The recognition is growing that if [nonformal] training is not to be a 'second-best' but practical and worthwhile alternative to [formal] education-relevant or not--then vocational guidance. . .is an acceptable and welcome service" (ILO, 1977, p. 36).

While little attention was paid to such services in the 1960's, the 1970's show an increasing number of

out-of-school programs incorporating guidance services into their programs. Some of the vocational training centers recognized by the International Labor Organization (ILO) have been in the Sudan and in Tanzania. Swaziland included career guidance in its Second National Development Plan. Morocco and Gabon have paid special attention to testing procedures to ascertain the vocational suitability of persons with little formal educational backgrounds.

Specific programs in various countries reflect a variety of aims. The Lagos (Nigeria) Opportunities Industrialization Center has developed a pre-vocational feeder program which lists as its goals: motivation, assessment, orientation, counseling and referral. The Caribbean Youth Camps in Dominica, Trinidad, Jamaica and Guyana state as one of their purposes: a concern for the trainee as an individual with particular personal qualities and problems. The Kenya YWCA Training Program for Girls lists placement as one of their services, and the YMCA out-of-school youth program in Dakar, Senegal, incorporates vocational guidance through placement and counseling for specific vocational streams, and follow-up support and services once the person in "on the job." The ZACC (Zones d'Activities Communitaires et Culturelles) program in the Cameroon has realized that with the addition of counseling, women's participation might be increased. The Prevocational

Program in Sri Lanka includes information gathering skills on occupations and activities to help young people develop a feeling of confidence and pride in their ability to carry out a specific skill. Malaysia conducted a career guidance campaign as part of National Youth Week to identify career opportunities and capabilities.

In addition, some programs are directed to other groups besides the youth population. Parents, employers, village elders and educational planners have been included in vocational guidance activities which includes giving information on the content and availability of jobs/work, needs of the labor market, and the consequences and rewards of work at various levels. This shifts some of the emphasis from the personal relationships of "classical counseling" to the need for "creating a body of informed opinion capable of enlightening and influencing people" (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1975(a), p. 144). In Thailand, for example, the Department of Nonformal Education has planned to have career counselors in each of the seventy-two provincial nonformal education centers which will serve as resource and information services not only to nonformal education trainers but to youth, adults, and community leaders.

> Increasingly, governments have accepted that there is basically no contradiction between the egalitarian, popular, and democratic

> spirit sought by an educational and training system and a carefully mounted mechanism designed to assist the individual, as much as the educational establishments and the employing organization, to choose the most appropriate training and employment. (ILO, 1977, p. 36)

Who is Involved in Vocational Guidance?

The answer to this question depends on how the previous questions were answered as to purpose, process, setting, and content. All of the variables interact to form a vocational guidance program for any one country at a given time.

Participants. In the past, in some industrialized countries with well-developed and compulsory educational systems, most of the participants in vocational guidance were the students. School leavers were helped to choose a career and adjust to that work. The economic systems were relatively easy to understand and job classifications were fairly simple. As conditions changed so did participants in the programs.

Other groups appeared to need vocational guidance as the labor market changed and as groups began to feel "disadvantaged" in comparison to their majority contemporaries. Crash programs began to appear in the USA in the mid 70's, designed to correct perceived deficits in attention and benefits. These groups included: women,

black and Hispanic minorities, veterans, the handicapped, urban youth, and illiterate/semi-literate immigrants. Today, with the current depressed labor market, it appears that everyone, from a Ph.D. to a high school graduate, is in need of some type of vocational guidance to begin to understand how they relate to the world of work.

In the least developed nations, the participants and process of vocational guidance are significantly different. As these countries tend to operate from economic insufficiency and a constant requirement to meet the basic needs of the population, the "have nots" form the majority and the "haves" the minority. A person's place in the social or class structure more or less dictates the possibilities for work and defines the field of choices that are appropriate for that person.

As these countries undergo social change, vocational guidance takes on an increasingly important role, the number of participants grows and the services become more in demand. Where students form the largest portion of youth in some countries, many educational practitioners have decided that the easiest way to give out information on the labor market in any one country is to work through the school and the teachers. As described earlier, many vocational guidance activities tend to rest with the teachers in the secondary schools.

However, there is a new awareness in many developing countries. Many "disadvantaged" groups are being missed if vocational guidance services are focused only in the secondary schools. Two trends are beginning to appear which will have an impact on the youth population in developing countries.

Many countries are considering finding ways to incorporate vocational guidance in the primary schools, where a large proportion of children spend at least part of their early lives. If children are made to see the world of work at an early age, perhaps they will begin to understand their future roles as adults in the labor market. Mrs. Mwaniki, an African guidance counselor, stated it this way:

> Most early school leavers [in Africa] are those who are slow learners, those who are over-age because of late entrance or repitition, and those who leave school for economic reasons. Therefore, a guidance program that emphasizes early identification, occupational information, and vocational counseling for the early school leaver is a necessity. (Mwaniki, 1980)

A second trend popular in both developed and industrialized countries is the idea of "life-long guidance," similar to life-long education. Many practitioners of vocational guidance maintain that it is necessary throughout all stages of one's life. Problems of modern society such as automation, the population explosion, integration, re-education, knowledge accumulation, communication and

technology, rapid obsolescence of knowledge and skills and changing patterns in society all make guidance a necessary service not only for school youths but also for those outside the school system of any age.

Ms. Mwaniki pointed out that "guidance is a necessary process in continuing education whereby the individual 'comes to terms with his world.' In this process the counselor assists the client to see himself and others in his world as they are so that he may make meaningful and informed decisions about his life consistent with his unique nature and the specific circumstances in which he finds himself" (1980).

Especially in these time,

> As the emotional aspects of life in various societies intensify under the influence of rapid change and as the educational and occupational structures diversify, nations throughout the world are turning to the implementation of guidance systems. . . to assist their populations to deal with the personal questions which ensue in such circumstances. (Drapela, 1979, p. v)

Counselors. It should be recognized that vocational choice and development have their roots in the early years of a child's life. The family, then, takes on an important role as they help a child interpret their physical and social environment and help formulate life experiences which include knowledge of self and the world of work.

"On the basis of personal and social values that one has established, one leaves his family of orientation, establishes himself in a world of work and begins a new family" (Luckey, 1974, p. 225).

In a time when social patterns of parenting are in transition and the vocational world is undergoing rapid change, parents and educators are finding it difficult to predict what the world of tomorrow will be. In traditional families parents and village elders were able to model for their children the kinds of tasks and skills they would need to assume their roles in the adult world. Boys were trained as "breadwinners" and girls were trained to be child care providers and homemakers. Roles have changed along with societal and parental expectations.

In industrialized countries a trained cadre of professional vocational counselors has existed for more than twenty years. Men and women gain access to the field and the practice of the professions through a series of degrees, certificates and life experiences. The family still takes an active role in helping their children develop self concept, but they are finding they need help in interpreting the world of work for their teenagers.

Super (1974) has identified a conflict in the area of the "professionalization" of guidance. In the early years in many countries, it was generally felt that "all

teachers are counselors." Teachers assumed, and continue to assume, a major role in vocational guidance. However, how much responsibility can teachers assume for this in addition to their teaching load? In a number of countries the issue continues to be how much professionalization, while in others it is still one of whether or not to professionalize.

The issue of professionalism is related to the purpose and content of vocational guidance. If the purpose is merely to give out information, then additional training is not required beyond that of the provision of appropriate materials and ways to distribute that material. However, if other purposes are defined, then other skills are required.

Some countries expect little training for counselors beyond that of a teaching certificate. In developing countries where trained manpower is scarce, the vocational guidance function is taken up by interested and enthusiastic teachers who have received little, if any, training. Many countries are developing their programs with one or two trained nationals who are helped by outside technical advisors. As long as vocational guidance remains the responsibility of the formal education system, this method is feasible. However, with the growing recognition that vocational guidance services should be made available to

those outside the formal school system, then other methods must be tried. There is a similar situation in the industrialized countries as more groups outside the formal school system demand vocational guidance services: school drop outs, the unemployed/underemployed, women entering the job market, the older citizen, and the handicapped.

The result of these new sets of demands is a renewed interest in the possibilities of short-term training for counselor aids and technicians, as well as for professionals in other areas. An entire new field has opened up to train paraprofessionals and give guidance skills to personnel involved in the role of interpreting the world of work to today's citizens.

Vocational (Careers*) Guidance in Lesotho

When and Where is Vocational Guidance Done? Formal vocational guidance has been in existence in Lesotho since 1967, when the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland (UBLS) held a short course for teachers who were nominated as careers masters/mistresses from their secondary schools. Historically this came at a time when the development of the secondary schools was seen as the

*The Lesotho program is referred to as Careers Guidance but the term can be interchanged with vocational guidance and will thus be used throughout this section.

answer to manpower problems. High school finishers were desperately needed to fill the white collar and civil service jobs vacated by the British colonists. Careers guidance was a way of assisting these students to fill the vacated posts.

However, this course was not followed up by the University or the Ministry of Education because of lack of qualified staff, finances and support. A few schools carried on formal guidance services with interested teachers and headmasters/mistresses carrying the load in addition to their regular teaching responsibilities. Officers and professionals from various training and employment sectors voluntarily visited the secondary schools to recruit school-leavers for specific posts, jobs or training in their respective departments or professions rather than offering vocational guidance or career development in general.

Also at that time, instructors from tertiary educational institutions visited schools to speak mainly to completers about the entry qualifications and courses offered in their schools. It was found that this kind of information was "destructive, frustrating, and discouraging to students if given at such a late stage, especially if the student, through lack of discretion, had followed a restricted curriculum" (Ministry of Education, 1973, p. 1).

In 1973, during a time when the Government expanded secondary school capacity by almost 200%, the Ministry of Education embarked on a program to re-establish formal and continuous vocational guidance in secondary and tertiary schools. The process was slow because of untrained and inexperienced personnel at the national and local levels, as well as an absence of literature and research involving vocational guidance in developing countries. The program was launched by a one-week training course for qualified secondary school teachers who volunteered to act as career masters/mistresses in their schools.

What is vocational guidance? In a speech directed at prospective counselors at the 1973 conference, a headmaster of one of the secondary schools articulated the meaning of vocational guidance in Lesotho. Its function was to:

> help a young person to assess his talents, aptitudes, and interests; to provide him with information about the world outside the school; and to relate the two so that he may plan to put his qualities to the best possible use. Your work is to help an individual, by his own efforts, to perform up to the level of his capacity. And, thus, you will reap the consolation of having helped youth find its place in society and of having helped to develop the manpower needs of. . . Lesotho. (Ministry of Education, 1973, p. 105)

What is the purpose of vocational guidance? In terms of the four aims described by Watts and Herr (1976) (see p. 67), the purpose of vocational guidance in Lesotho would seem to

fall into the "non-directive" category, a means of making students more aware of opportunities and making them independent in choosing their individual alternative. According to Kann's (1981) two-dimensional classification system, Lesotho's program would be charted as follows:

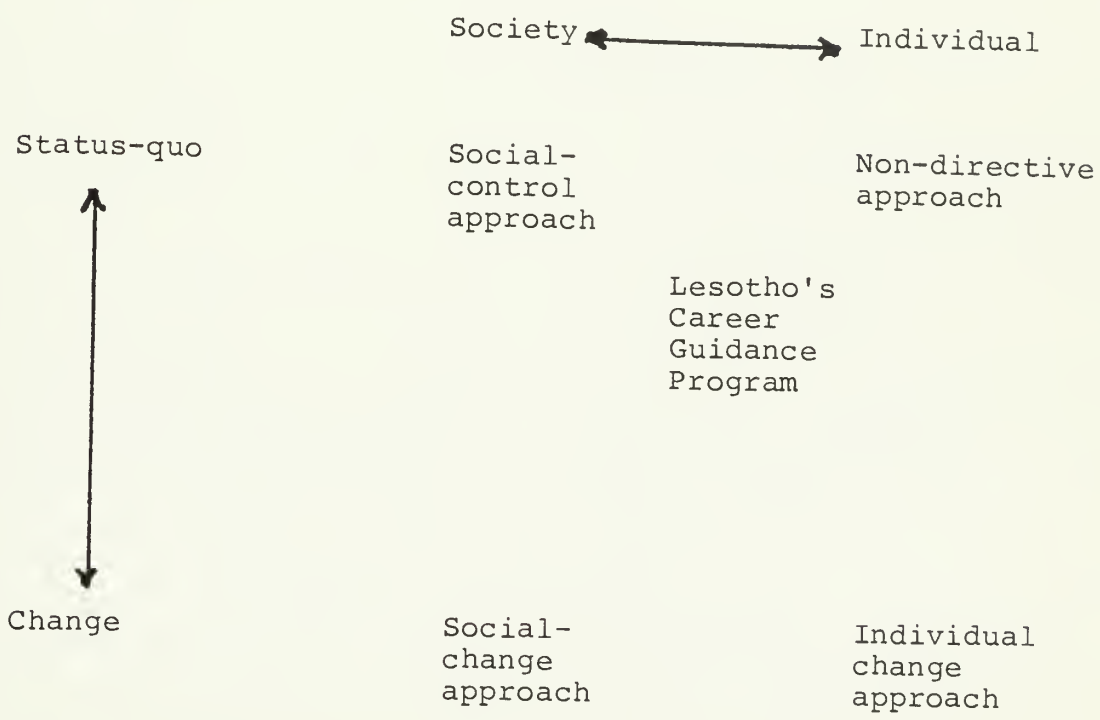


Figure 2: Classification of Lesotho's Guidance Program

If Lesotho's program may be classified as non-directive, it should be recognized that the societal aspect is also considered an important part of the opportunity awareness process.

What is the process of vocational guidance? Since 1973, the vocational guidance program has taken on a veriety of tasks and projects to reach young people and adults, in a combination of in-school and out-of-school related activities.

Radio broadcasts. A total of approximately forty radio programs have been produced and aired over the educational portion of the national radio station. These programs were intended for students in the secondary school, but because of the nature of the broadcasting, they actually reached parents, adults, employers, and out-of-school youth. Topics covered such areas as: assessing talents; careers/ jobs in various fields; how to apply and interview for jobs; self reliance/income generation; taking examinations; ways to receive financial aid; correspondence courses; the "generation gap", etc. Scripts of the programs were mailed to all schools and several schools recorded the programs for their own future use.

Materials production. The kinds of materials produced were mainly directed towards teachers who were

acting as counselors and towards the students themselves. A Career Guidance Newsletter was published for several years which gave tips, information, and general in-service training to the teachers, as well as information directed to student use. Small booklets were also produced, giving specific career information to students and small segments of the out-of-school population.

A Career Guidance Handbook was published in 1976 which has become as a "textbook" for vocational guidance personnel. The book was written by American-trained counselors with the Lesotho context in mind.

Other organizations, schools, places of employment, and service agencies have been assisted and encouraged to print their own materials to be distributed to students, school leavers, and adults.

Tracer studies. The World Bank and the Training for Self Reliance Project funded a series of tracer studies designed to do follow-up surveys of school leavers at the secondary school and university levels, and at selected technical schools. Data included: student and parent aspirations; relevance of curriculum offerings; actual jobs/training/employment obtained after leaving school; perceived value of selected professions; recommendations to schools; etc. Results of these surveys were made available and interpreted for the National Planning Office,

the National Manpower Development Secretariat, educational institutions, curriculum development specialists, employers, and in some cases, the students and school leavers themselves.

Record keeping. A record keeping system was instituted in the secondary schools to formalize data kept on the students for use in teaching, counseling and administration. Student record cards were distributed to all schools for incoming students, and teachers and headmasters were trained in the collection of data and methods of updating information. In addition, schools were encouraged to pass these cards to other institutions to use with the individuals.

Curriculum development. This was a major area and took a three-fold direction. Curriculum had to be developed for teacher training institutions and for primary and secondary schools interested in having guidance courses in their curricula. Efforts were made to assist teachers and educaton officers in the integration of guidance subjects and topics into existing courses and subject offerings.

Individual counseling. This form of assistance was a major activity at the national office and at the school levels. Students, school leavers, and adults have used the expertise of the professionals as well as the lay

guidance personnel to obtain information and help in facing decisions and opportunities about the world of work and their role in that world. Much of the assistance was through the mail as many of the youth who needed help were often in the isolated mountain areas or in the mines of South Africa.

Community outreach. This is a continuing focus of the vocational guidance program, as more and more people become aware of the subject and the values and rewards of such a service. As will be described in Chapter V, the guidance officers assist other organizations, such as the Prison Service, with materials and inservice staff training. Other services include: career days for adults and school leavers; liaison with employers and other educational and governmental organizations, such as the newly created National Employment Service; and assistance to nonformal education programs.

Training. An ongoing theme of the guidance program, training offerings cover a range of sophistication and clientele. On the more formal side, courses are currently being offered at the University to train teachers and other educational personnal in guidance; and at the teacher training college, courses have been offered to train primary and secondary school teachers and head-

teachers to assume guidance roles in their school.

Inservice and staff development training has consisted of conferences, short courses, school visits and meetings of teachers groups, and dissemination of materials. Secondary schools were visited every year and these visits included talks to students along with meetings of teachers to discuss students problems, career opportunities and information surrounding the lives of the students and the world of work. This often meant that the career officers have to travel by plane, horse, land-rover, or by foot to reach the remote areas!

Who is involved in vocational guidance?

Participants. As can be ascertained from the above descriptions, the majority of the participants in this particular kind of vocational guidance programming are students in the secondary schools. A decision was made in the early stages of the program to concentrate on the school leavers with 3-5 years of education. There is a growing awareness that other sections of the population are in need of such services, but shortage of personnel prevents any growth into other areas. Chapter IV will reveal the needs and problems of an even greater proportion of the population, the out-of-school youth, that are barely being served by the current vocational guidance program.

Counselors. This description of vocational guidance focuses on the formal program. However, it should be recognized that family members and other elders in the villages still play an important role in the counseling of Lesotho's youth. However, as was noted in Chapter II, this is becoming increasingly harder to do:

> There is a considerable tendancy for the young to give little attention to the past experience of adults. Learning from experience, yes--but learning from one's own experience! The reason is simple. The youth world of the adults is not the world that youth is living in today. And yesterday's experiences may have only a limited value for youth. There has always been a social change in society, but the gap between yesterday and today has become greater than ever. (Wrenn, 1978, p. 51)

Adults are confused about today's world and their role as guides of youth. This is evident in the number of parents who are seeking out the help and advice of Lesotho's guidance personnel in hopes of finding ways to help and assist their adolescent children.

Several Basotho have been trained in guidance in England and the United States, with some receiving certificates, first degrees, and one Ed.D. There have been posts created in the Ministry of Education, the National University, the National Teachers Training College, the National Testing Center, and the National Manpower Development Secretariat for counselors, although there continues to be a shortage of trained personnel and

administrative commitment to fill these posts and give them recognition.

For many years the guidance office/program was staffed with one person who tried to carry out all of the activities needed in Lesotho. And from 1974-78 the formal guidance program was staffed with American Peace Corps volunteers who brought with them their own models and interpretations of the guidance function.

The future scenario of guidance personnel in Lesotho will continue to be that of lay personnel performing the guidance function within their normal job responsibilities.

Summary

Vocational guidance, like other fields of education, must be defined with many variables in mind, and no two programs will look the same. The nature and meaning of vocational guidance is dependent on the content, the process, the purpose, the participants and the setting.

It should also be recognized that these variables interrelate and have an impact on each other. As the folowing figure illustrates, vocational guidance becomes defined through an examination of how the variables interface with each other. The shaded portion represents the definition of vocational guidance.

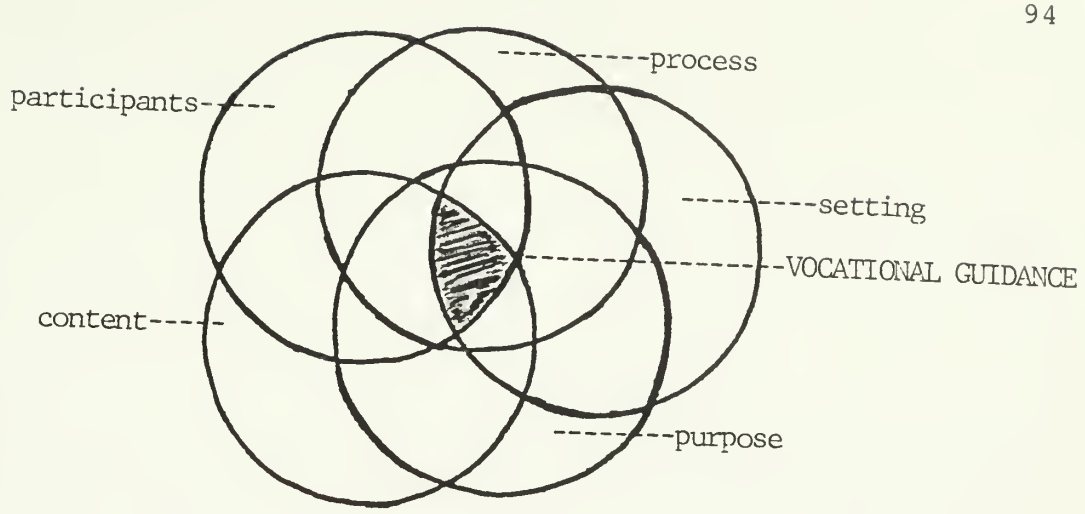


Figure 3: Visual description of the definition of vocational guidance

The definition of the term, therefore, relates to the political and social philosophies of a given country, school and individual program and activity, and must be placed in a wider context of economic, traditional, and historical factors. Japan and the United States will define vocational guidance differently from Ghana and the Soviet Union. Caution must be given to those who would try to come up with a universal definition of vocational guidance.

In the specific case of vocational guidance in Lesotho, the definition of the program has come from the following major influences:

Post-independence thinking and the change in the economic situation in the country;

American/British trained counselors/personnel;

Lack of relationship between Lesotho's development goals and the relationship to vocational guidance efforts;

Current attention being paid to Lesotho and its role in Africa, creating a new thrust for services to the youth;

and lack of governmental attention to the importance of the program.

Chapters IV and V will examine the needs and problems of the out-of-school population in Lesotho and how the educational programs are trying to meet these needs, using or not using vocational guidance services to compliment training and academic offerings.

C H A P T E R I V

CHARACTERISTICS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH IN LESOTHO

Introduction

In order to understand the needs, characteristics, and problems of the out-of-school youth population in Lesotho several types of sources were used: the literature, interviews with youth and their leaders, and the experience and observations of the researcher. The following chapter will outline the needs of the out-of-school youth initially through the use of life histories and then will describe the situation according to the different environments in which youth are involved: physical, social, cultural, educational, political, economic and psychological.

A discussion of the individual needs of the youth of Lesotho must consider the following factors:

1. The needs of individual young people must be seen within the context of the larger society--the family to which they belong and the village and country in which they live.
2. Secondly, when seeking to identify the needs of the out-of-school youth population as a whole, the needs of the individual cannot be

isolated from those of the family, community, the nation and the larger world. The needs of all of the other "groups" which influence a young person play an important role in the identification of needs and of the avenues which are taken to meet those needs. These needs, coupled with those of the individual, form a complex set of interrelationships which are neither easy to study nor amenable to quick solutions.

3. The rural/urban origin and settling place of youth play a major part in the approach to the analysis of the needs of this group. There are disparities in educational and employment opportunities between rural and urban youth in all parts of the world, and many of these disparities are contained within a particular country or region.
4. There are important differences between the needs of males and females, differences which hinge on the particular social, economic, and cultural situation of the individual as well as on established patterns of discrimination in opportunities for women. (from Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980, p. 48)

Life Histories

The following life histories are not meant to stereotype Basotho youth, for each individual has her/his own set of needs and concerns. As was discussed in Chapter I, the use of composites or representatives of youth serves as a beginning point in the understanding of the age group. All four of the descriptions are taken from the age group already identified in the target study and have completed some or all of primary school. There are other youth in Lesotho who have their own stories to tell, but for reasons already stated they are not included in this chapter.

Two males and two females were chosen, two from a rural and two from an urban setting to demonstrate the role that the environment plays on life's circumstances in Lesotho. Sex differences as well as differences in opportunities due to schooling, educational attainments of parents, economic conditions, and cultural constraints are all variables in these descriptions.

Mpho. Mpho comes from a rural area in the lowlands. She finished primary school in 1976 at the age of sixteen and couldn't afford to go on to secondary school although she passed her school-leaving examination with a second class pass. Her mother had supported her while she was in primary school at an extreme sacrifice, but since Mpho is the oldest

of six children, she is now expected to use that investment to help the others. So now that Mpho is out of school, she needs an income to support her mother, her brothers and sisters. Her minimal basic needs are being met while she is at home, but her mother is putting pressure on her to begin contributing to the family.

Mpho has assessed the possibilities of finding a job in her village and decided that the immediate environment did not provide means for her to earn an income. The subjects that she studied in school did not really equip her to do anything but read and write English, which would pay off only if she lived in a larger town or in the capital city.

The women in the village have organized a women's club and are involved in making straw hats to be sold in the capital city as souvenirs for the South African tourists. Because Mpho has not been married or had any children, she is still regarded as a child. This means that she is welcome to join the women outside the rondavels (mud huts) and to act as helper, running errands for the women, preparing meals, or caring for the children. However, she cannot actively join in the making of hats, and, therefore, cannot hope to gain any monetary reward for her participation in the group.

Her alternatives seem to be few. She can leave her village and go to a town to try to find a job although others her age have told her that there is nothing for her except to work as a houseservant or babysitter. This would mean living away from home and not being able to help her mother with taking care of the children or farming the small plot of land near their home. A second alternative would be to try to get a government scholarship to attend a secondary school. This would mean three more years of not being able to help the family but could produce financial help over the long term. But what skills could she learn in secondary school that would prepare her for a good job?

Mpho thinks of a third alternative: to go to the Farmers' Training Center in the nearby town and learn a skill which would help her become a better farmer. But what would that skill contribute to increase the already meager income provided by the crops yielded from her family plot?

Mpho is confused by her alternatives and discouraged because she does not see what course of action to take. Sometimes she wishes she were a boy so she could go to the mines like many of the young males in her village. Or maybe she should find a husband who will be able to free her from all this and help with money to give to her family.

This young girl is not unlike many in her situation who have completed primary school and find they are not prepared for making a productive contribution to the family. Her mother's expectations that she will be able to instantly transform that education into money are part of a pattern where parents do not really understand the schooling process or what the outcomes of such an education might be. Mpho could qualify for a program geared to her qualifications, but she is not aware of the opportunities available to her. She is isolated and uninformed.

Thabo. Thabo is also from a rural area and faces some life decisions not dissimilar to those of other young men his age. He started school at age twelve, having been a herd-boy for his family, tending cattle purchased by his father, who works in the mines in South Africa. After his younger brother took over the herding job, Thabo was able to start school. He didn't particularly like it and was frequently absent for long periods of time. He finally dropped out after four years of sporadic attendance and has been living at home for the time being.

After having spent money on his education, Thabo's parents are now pressuring him to contribute to the household. He wants to "be a man", to drive a car and wear nice clothes, but he cannot decide how to make his money. He receives no real guidance from his illiterate mother,

and his father is rarely at home. School was a waste of time; the teachers didn't even teach him how to read or write. Thabo knows that there are no rewards for subsistence farming. Life in the village is boring and he does not want to be stuck there.

Thabo sees the lights of the city as an exciting and dazzling place to be, and thinks of going there to seek work. He is sure there must be jobs there--he has heard of the many tourist hotels and knows that is where the government offices are. If only he could read and write.

Like his friends, he is also thinking of going to the mines and making a lot of money. The mines offer a way of proving himself, but the life there is hard and he sees the toll it has taken on other men in the country. However, the monetary rewards seem worth it. On the other hand, he is not sure the mining recruiters will accept him because he has heard on the radio that the companies are tightening up their requirements.

Thabo's situation is common in the isolated mountain areas of Lesotho. Lack of information, inadequate schooling, poor agricultural land, no parental guidance, and new mining entrance requirements all combine to make the picture for young rural men very dim. Urban migration has become a widespread problem, but without other alternatives, what choice do young people have? With his negative

attitude toward manual labor and without any literacy skills, Thabo's future could be one of crime and conflict.

Pulane. Pulane is a young woman of fifteen who lives in one of the larger towns in Lesotho. She has completed secondary school although she received failing grades. She did not get a good pass in her JC exam and is unable to go on to high school. She knows she has artistic talent but also knows that that skill is not useful; in fact, her teachers and her parents condemned her for spending time "playing" and not doing anything constructive.

Pulane's parents both work, and she has grown up without much parental control or care. She has been exposed to modern society but her parents expect her to be a traditional woman. She is confused over the changing times and does not really know the "right" way to behave. Several boys in her class were interested in her and she received a lot of recognition from her agemates because of this.

She saw other girls and boys in her school succeeding although she knew they were not any smarter than she was. She was also aware that these young people were the ones with money, or their parents had the right political affiliation, surname or community position. She voiced these concerns to her parents but they told her that she must "grow up" before she can voice those kinds of reactions.

Pulane has attempted to look for jobs in the town: most employers tell her that she is too young or that she doesn't know how to type or do bookkeeping. She feels rejected by her agemates who have gone on to high school and she doesn't know what to do. She spends most of her time drawing and roaming around her neighborhood visiting other girls and mothers. She knows she will be taken care of by her parents until she finds a husband, but that could take several years. There is one man in the community who likes her and they have sex occasionally with little thought that a child could result. Of course, if she did have a baby maybe her parents would listen to her and treat her like an adult.

Pulane, like young adults all over the world, is caught in the mid years between being regarded as a child but having the hopes and dreams and concerns of an adult. She cannot find an outlet for her artistic talent and thinks that going to the capital city and living with her sister will solve the problem of boredom and lack of recognition.

Lebohang. Lebohang can be found in front of a large, modern hotel in the capital city. Most often he is with three or four other young boys, and the city dwellers label him as a tsotsi, or street urchin. Born in the

mountain area, he was deserted by his young mother at an early age, and so he migrated to the city in search of food, shelter, and a way to support himself. He was attracted to the city lights where people drove fancy cars and lived in nice houses, with plenty to eat and drink. He quickly learned that there were no jobs available and turned to the street as a way of making enough coins to buy himself some bread each day.

It was not hard to find a group of boys to associate with; their place in front of the tourist hotels was well-established. Lebohang at first thought he could make enough money washing cars for all the rich people who came to that hotel. But in the end, he had to resort to stealing from the local cafes, pickpocketing, and house-breaking. When he did have some extra money or goods, he used it to buy liquor or marijuana. Several of his friends have been caught by the police and taken to the Juvenile Detention Center, but he has escaped that so far. The police have been very friendly and have said that they wanted to help him, but he has rejected offers of training and schooling. After all, he has his reputation to protect, and what would the other boys say if they knew he was being helped by the police? And, besides, the police would send him back to the rural areas and then what would he do?

After four years on the street Lebohang knows his way around and can compete with the best of the tsotsis. His female friends, the prostitutes on the street, sometimes help him out with food or clothing or places to sleep. His dreams of a fancy car and a big house are constantly on his mind and are reinforced by the western movies that he has been able to sneak in to. Lebohang looks forward to the day when all this will be his.

Urban migration, homeless children, juvenile delinquency, crime, and rural/urban disparities all have become a part of the scene in the capital city and boys like Lebohang are a common sight at the hotels, bus stops, and cafes. Methods for coping with such problems have begun to puzzle a variety of politicians, social workers, and concerned citizens, but the question of Lebohang's future still remains unanswered.

Summary. These life histories reveal a number of complex problems and needs, many of which suggest that youth share common concerns and futures world-wide. To best understand the needs of Basotho youth in particular, we must examine the context in which they occur. In most instances, youth needs and their context impact upon each other and may even directly influence each other. For the purposes of discussion, the following separate categories will be used, however interrelated they may in fact be: physical

environment; economic environment; social environment; cultural environment; political environment; educational environment, and psychological environment.

The data for each section has been gathered through the interviews and through a document search, as well as from the researcher's own experience and observations. In some cases there is more information than others; this unevenness is the result of the kinds of information offered by the different sources involved.

Physical environment. Lesotho, "the mountain kingdom", is one of the smallest countries in Africa. The entire country lies at least 1000 meters above sea level and is completely landlocked by the Republic of South Africa. Three-fourths of the country are occupied by foothills and largely inaccessible mountains. Only one-quarter of the land is suitable for cultivation. Its climate is generally temperate with well-marked seasons, including cold temperatures and snow in the mountains during winter months. The land is characterized by grand rock formations and eroded gulleys. In many parts of the country the only form of transport is the Basotho pony, donkey or airplane.

The defacto population of Lesotho is estimated at around one million, with approximately ninety-five percent of that total being from the rural areas. Lesotho is a

unique African country in the fact that the Basotho nation is both a homogeneous ethnic and linguistic group. Therefore, she is able to avoid tribal conflicts and the problems of a multi-lingual population. Fifty-seven percent of that population are women, but with the absence of a large number of males, who are migrant laborers, many communities are left with a disproportional number of women and a high ratio of children to adults. In fact, some communities are made up of only women, with the exception of the very old and very young males.

The impact of the physical environment on its youth is multifaceted. Mr. Sekonyane, Director of Youth and Women's Affairs in the Prime Minister's Office, stated the problem very clearly: "Geographical conditions in Lesotho place youth in the position of requiring the basic needs to improve the quality of their life." Given the diverse and hard living conditions in some parts of rural Lesotho, the young people are struggling along with the adults of their villages just to scratch out a living. And with the absence of the older males in the family, the youth are sometimes largely responsible for their family, contributing major portions of the manual labor to cultivate and harvest the crops on their small plots.

Youth in the urban areas, as in Lebohang's case, also need the basic survival requirements of food, shelter,

clothing, and sanitary facilities. Mr. Sekoli, of the Youth Affairs Council, pointed out that youth from both the rural and urban areas need "freedom from hunger and disease." The provision of adequate health care, nutrition information, sex education, information about improving the home and adequate food production are all essential (Sekoli, 1980).

The physical environment also impacts on the youth psychologically, as will be brought up in a later section. Mountain youth feel isolated and different from their low-land peers, affecting the ways they confront their choices. The youth, and youth leaders who work with them, seem to have a clear understanding of their needs vis a vis the physical environment and the immense role that geography plays in their lives.

Economic environment. Lesotho's economic policies and relationships are shaped by the fact that the country is surrounded by the industrialized and highly developed country of South Africa.

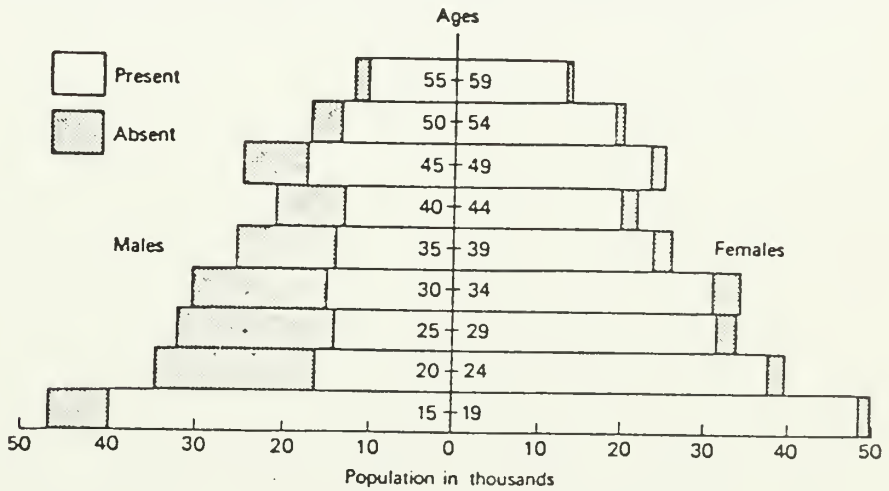
> For over a hundred years, it [Lesotho] has exported something like half of its male labour force across the Caledon river to the mines, collieries and farms of the RSA and the remittances of these migrant workers have doubled, tripled, and in recent years sextupled rural household income, directly and indirectly financed one-third of the Government budget, and generated two-fifths of the national income. Wages and prices, interest rates and customs receipts, even the exchange rate of its monetary

> unit, are all determined by RSA which in addition controls every trade and communication link of the country to the rest of the world. There never was a country so dependent for its development on another--in this case one with which it has the most profound political differences. (ILO, 1979, pp. 1-2)

Because of the continued inability of the agricultural base to accommodate the domestic workers with a satisfactory wage rate, both men and women continue to migrate from Lesotho every year. In 1978, forty-one percent of the potential male labor force migrated to South Africa. Table 8 describes Lesotho's population by age range and presence and absence in the country. In that same year, it was estimated that sixty percent of the rural households had at least one migrant worker supplementing their income (Kingdom of Lesotho, 1979, p. 170).

Table 8

DISTRIBUTION OF LESOTHO POPULATION (1966) BY SEX, RESIDENTIAL STATUS, AND AGE COHORTS 15-59



Source: Kingdom of Lesotho, First Five Year Development Plan, 1970.

This condition creates increasing pressure on the young men in the rural areas to go "to the mines" to supplement the income of their families. For generations this pattern has existed in Lesotho and it seems "natural" for a young man to do his time in the mines. Most miners from Lesotho are under thirty and unskilled with few reaching Standard seven.

The effects of migrant labor on Lesotho society are far reaching. Migration causes men to be away at critical times in the growing seasons. Investment in the upbringing and education of migrants is lost to another country. Long-term separation from the family has both short and long term repercussions. Because mining is a hazardous occupation, many men return home with injuries or poor health, making them no longer fit for physical work at home. In addition, the apartheid policy of the South African administration and the degrading conditions which migrants generally experience in dormitory living also take their toll.

This problem has become increasingly urgent in the last few years as a result of the unrest amongst the blacks in South Africa, mechanization of the mines, the formation of the Bantustans, the banning of importation of foreign labor except for the gold mines, and threat of reduction of employment of Basotho, even in the gold mines.

Three choices are available to the local population for earning a living: farming, working in the towns, or working in the mines. The wages in town are several times higher than those from farming, but much lower than what can be earned in the mines. Typically the income differential is of the order of 1:2.5:5 (ILO, 1979, p. xxxi). The situation in urban areas is unequal because of diverse groups, ranging from informal sector workers to large entrepreneurs: only six percent of the population commands one-third of the national income (ILO, 1979, p. xxxii). However, wage employment within Lesotho is a relatively minor activity: far greater numbers are self-employed or unpaid family workers sharing the income of the entire family. And whether they are employed for wages or not, only a few are economically active six days a week, forty-five weeks a year (ILO, 1979, p. x). A closer look at sector employment and the age distribution of the labor force can be found on Tables 9, 10, and 11.

> The major dilemma facing Lesotho is how to reduce dependence on migrant labour and generate long-term self-sustaining growth in the economy, how to ensure that aid and investments encourage rather than harm local initiative, and how to ensure that programmes benefit all of the people not just the elite. The strategy for development of human resources on the one hand is guided by the national aspirations and cultural milieu, and on the other by the need to develop indigenous, productive and widespread agricultural, commercial and industrial activities. (Country Paper, 1980, p. 5)

Table 9

NUMBER OF PERSONS 10 YEARS AND OVER EMPLOYED FOR WAGES IN DIFFERENT SECTORS IN LESOTHO, 1976

	Industry	Total	RSA	Lesotho
1.	Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	4,195	552	3,643
2.	Mining	128,842	103,330	25,542
3.	Manufacturing	6,582	3,339	3,243
4.	Electricity, Gas and Water	810	253	557
5.	Construction	10,010	3,479	6,531
6.	Wholesale and Retail Trade, Hotels and Restaurants	5,809	1,045	4,764
7.	Transport, Storage and Communications	4,269	1,634	2,635
8.	Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	251	59	192
9.	Community and Social Services	44,036	10,336	33,700
10.	Activities not elsewhere defined	9,630	5,585	4,045
	Total	214,434	129,582	84,852

Source: 1976 Census provisional Tables 19 and 23C.

Taken from: ILO, Options for a Dependent Economy, 1979, p. 22.

Table 10

ESTIMATED DE JURE ACTIVE LABOUR FORCE BY AGE GROUP AND SEX IN LESOTHO, 1966 to 1980
(thousands)

		1966	1970	1975	1980
Males	15-24	52.6	63.4	74.8	86.4
Males	25-64	162.2	185.3	2 7.5	233.6
Males	15-64	214.8	248.7	282.3	320.0
Females	15-24	47.5	53.3	62.7	72.2
Females	25-64	164.1	176.8	193.2	208.7
Females	15-64	211.6	230.1	255.9	280.9
Both Sexes	15-64	426.4	478.8	538.2	600.9

CPDO Estimates: based on projection of population growth from the population census of 1966 and, for later years, estimates based on changing trends in over-age enrollment in schools and anticipated changes resulting from the high volume of internal employment creation planned.

Source: Kingdom of Lesotho, Second Five Year Development Plan, 1974, p. 44.

Table 11

ESTIMATES* OF POPULATION OF PRIME WORKING AGE AND OVERALL PRTICIPATION IN EMPLOYMENT ACTIVITIES BY AGE AND SEX IN LESOTHO, 1975

	De Jure Population of Prime Working Age (thousands)	Rate of Participation in Employment Activities (Percent)	Participation in Employment Activities (thousands)
Males 15-24	111	68	75
Males 25-64	220	94	207
Males 15-64	331	85	282
Females 15-24	109	58	63
Females 25-64	224	86	193
Females 15-64	333	77	256
Both Sexes 15-64	664	81	538

*These estimates are provisional. All figures on population and employment will be revised in accordance with the results of the 1976 Census. The estimates of population and participation in employment are based on projections from 1966 Census figures. Employment figures include all self-employed, employed, and family workers, and persons underemployed in the various senses of that term.

Source: Annual Statistical Bulletin, 1975.

Taken from: Kingdom of Lesotho, Second Five Year Development Plan, 1974, p. 266.

In 1976, sixteen and a half percent of the total population supported eighty-three and a half percent; and by 1985 it is likely that approximately thirteen percent will be supporting close to eighty-eight percent of the total population (Kingdom of Lesotho, 1979, p. 171).

Another factor affecting the situation of the young person in Lesotho is the land tenure system. Land is not owned by the Basotho but held in common for each married man or widow. In theory all have rights to the land for life as long as it is being used; if not used, it reverts back to the chief for allocation. Only one-fourth of the total land area of Lesotho is suitable for cultivation since the other three-fourths are occupied by foothills and largely inaccessible mountains. With the population growth, this limits the amount of land available for allocation and severely restricts any land that might be allocated to a young person. A 1976 UNICEF study reported that over fourteen percent of rural families in Lesotho were without land to till (p. 10).

When young people and their leaders and parents were questioned about needs and problems, economic-related answers always came out first: "We need jobs," "they need work," "they need training for employment," "young people need work," "there are no jobs in Lesotho for young people," etc. Most school finishers, drop outs, and even those

young people who have not attended school are expected to make some kind of economic contribution to their families before they leave home. And once they leave and are on their own, they of course require a wage to support themselves.

Competition in the formal wage sector is stiff, with out-of-school youth competing with secondary and high school finishers for jobs. The Civil Service recently (1980) passed a requirement that all government employees hired must have completed the JC (Junior Certificate) exam. This makes it very hard for those who have dropped out of school at lower levels to find jobs. It means that they must seek out the private sector for wage employment or find ways to generate income in the informal sector or in agriculture. For many males, mining is the only option and with the new mining policies, for many youth this is no longer an option. Youth need more alternatives.

There is a lot of pressure on young people to repay their families for earlier support for schooling. And it is almost always understood that older brothers and sisters must seek work to provide money and support for the younger members of the family. As in the cases of Mhpo and Thabo, they feel that they must find work to pay back what their parents have sacrificed for them to attend school.

Youth feel the gaps between the "haves" and the "have nots" and also between the mountain areas and the lowlands. The economic environment has made rural youth feel inferior and has forced them to flock to the cities. Because they are unaware of the labor situation in the cities, and lack information, they often turn to crime and juvenile delinquency.

Many young people expressed the thought that they would stay in the villages if there were community resources to help them get started. With the land tenure system as it is, there is no chance for them to use the skills they might have learned in the area of agriculture and animal husbandry. Even for those with positive attitudes towards manual labor, there are few opportunities in the rural areas to make a wage with their hands, and they often have to compete with the adults there.

There seems to be no question that the economic situation in Lesotho has affected the young people. However, how to respond to that situation still puzzles the majority of youth, youth leaders, planners, and parents. A recent study by the ILO, Options for a Dependent Economy (1979), begins to approach the problem at a higher level but the government has made little effort to involve the youth and others who are most directly involved. Lebohang and his friends in the street, or Mpho, struggling to find

ways to help her family, are uninformed but hopeful of a bright economic future for themselves.

A wide communication gap certainly exists regarding the world of work and prospects for young people

Social environment. Lesotho is not unlike her counterparts in the rest of Southern Africa. The extended family is the primary unit in the rural areas and to a lesser extent in the urban areas. Social status within the village and in the more populated areas is determined by educational level, occupation, family name/traditional standing, political affiliation, and wealth. While education is nominally available to all children, access to facilities and the ability to pay school fees determine who goes and who doesn't. The school drop outs are primarily from the lower classes, and this, more or less, determines a child's lot in life. Women's status in the family and the village is recognized as important although it is still the men that make the major decisions. This becomes difficult when many of the male heads of household are in the mines.

When youth and their leaders were questioned about needs and problems, a major social concern was the problem of urban migration and how to keep youth in the rural areas. Overcrowded conditions and lack of jobs in the city are creating a population of young persons leading lives hand to mouth, as does Lebohang. Many rural youth,

like Mpho and Thabo, are attracted to the "city lights", but once they get to the cities they find little money or sense of belonging. "Many kids leave home and have to adjust to new lives away from families without traditional means of support" (Majara, 1980).

Several leaders commented on the fact that there seems to be a decline in the quality of parenting in Lesotho. With both parents working out of the home, especially in the urban areas, children are often left without guidance and attention. As in the case of Pulane, they are left to roam and they feel undirected. This repeats itself in a different way in the rural areas. With the majority of males in the mines, mothers/women are left in the villages without men. Yet in most families, decisions are still to be made by men, so women are left in situations where they feel they cannot act on their own. "Males leave for the mines and mothers are not strong enough to discipline the young people which leads to a breakdown of the family" (Nalana, 1980). A development planner stated that "the absence of male figures in the rural areas leads to social disruption" (Molapo, 1980).

Young women are being forced into early marriages and/or early child bearing. They are "no longer willing to wait at home for marriage" (Sekonyane, 1980). Mpho and Pulane both saw this as a solution to their problem of lack

of jobs, boredom and financial input to their families. However, many early pregnancies and/or marriages result in abandonment. Young mothers leave their children with older relatives as they depart, often for the "city lights." And lately, the urban areas have large numbers of tsotsis like Lebohang who are without homes or families.

Parental attitudes and behavior also were mentioned as a problem affecting youth. At a meeting with Senior Youth Officials (1980) it was mentioned that "elders were not good models for youth behavior; men return from the mines in the Republic with bad habits. The young men want to copy these bad habits and this leads to trouble."

And, as happens in many countries undergoing rapid economic and social changes, there are gaps between youth and adults/parents. Most youth that were interviewed stated that parents do not recognize or accept the "new ways." Most girls are expected to be traditional women even though they are exposed to and want to try out the modern ways. Parents still cater to the youth and treat them almost as children until the age of twenty-one or until they are married. Youth usually complain then that they come away from the homes with few skills to make decisions about their lives or skills to solve problems. The young people are confused and frustrated. They want to respect their parents and elders while feeling that

they "just don't know what is going on."

The urban youth workers complained that "outsiders have influenced youth." These outsiders are tourists, an abundance of foreign personnel working in Lesotho, Western movies and music, and, most recently, television. Youth are beginning to see the gap between the haves and the have nots, not only in relation to their own class system, but more globally. They want a share of "the pie in the sky" for themselves.

Youth also recognized that there were differences in opportunities dependent upon the amount of money one's family had, the particular family name or heritage, and political affiliation. These variables were not within their control, and they felt they were helpless to fight discrimination on the job, in schooling, and training opportunities.

There are also differences in the opportunities available to males or females. Although in schooling, females often outnumber males in the primary years, they are quickly outnumbered in the upper years. Further, society's attitude about the place of women still makes her a "lower class citizen" (Shale, 1980). This is changing as women become more educated and are assuming more responsible roles in the government. But for the out-of-school youth, the girls are still being tracked into

very traditional kinds of training and job opportunities, with few options for wage income. When Mpho expressed the wish that she were a boy, she was responding to her situation as compared to young men "making it" in the mines.

Most youth in the rural areas complained that there was a lack of recreational and sporting facilities and that they "didn't have enough to do." In the urban areas, they claimed they had to have money to participate in recreational activities or be in school. And in many of the social organizations in the towns there is no room for youth involvement or participation. As was seen in Mpho's case, "formal/informal organizations often exclude young men and women. There is a need to include youth in existing groups or to try to organize groups for young people" (Mokukoana, 1980). Youth often feel alienated by schooling and don't feel a part of their communities. "The social set-up of most Basotho villages doesn't encourage participation of young people in social or economic activities" (Tsephe, 1980).

Educational environment. Education in Lesotho is based on the British system, with primary, secondary and tertiary schools resembling those of the West.

> Due to the zeal and dedication of the missions over the past century Lesotho today has a comparatively high literacy rate, estimated at more than 40% of the adult population, and

> virtually all children have access to and enter at least the first standard of primary school. (Country Paper, 1980, p. 1)

Primary education officialy begins at the age of six and extends seven years. However, about seventy-five percent of the children who actually enter Standard one are in fact older and by Standard seven more than ninety percent are over twelve. Since Independence the participation rate of the child population in primary education has been very high. Statistics in 1980 showed more children in school than are in the six to twelve age group. This is partly due to that fact that many children are migrating to Lesotho from the Republic of South Africa to take advantage of a school system that they feel better meets their needs and values. Almost every child in Lesotho enters school, but there is a high drop out rate during the primary school cycle, with only twenty percent of the boys and forty-eight percent of the girls actually completing Standard seven. One explanation of the large discrepancy between the rates for boys and for girls in primary school is that the boys are required to herd cattle and so are either taken from school to do this or are late starters. The high drop out rate may be attributed to inadequate facilities and materials and overcrowded classrooms, with an average of an 80:1 pupil classroom ratio (ILO, 1979).

A serious problem facing Lesotho in improving these facilities and the materials for schools is the topography of the country. As stated earlier, almost two-thirds of the country consists of rugged mountains and steep river valleys, where the population is sparse and access is very difficult. Providing education to children in these areas is costly. In the mountain region there are many very small one or two-teacher schools with no more than a single classroom.

The general five year secondary course is comprised of three years in lower-secondary schools (Forms A-C) and two years in upper-secondary (Forms D and E). Entrance to each level is by competitive examination. It is the government's policy that all those who pass this examination are permitted entry into secondary schools though, due to the high school fees and lack of space, only about fifty percent of all Standard seven pupils continue to Form A. At the end of the third year of secondary education, students sit for a Junior Certificate (JC) examination, and at the end of the fifth year for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) examination. The continuation from Form C to D is competitive, with only about forty-five percent of those sitting for the JC examination actually continuing to Form D. Although less than one percent of those who enter Standard one are likely

to pass the COSC examination at the end of the secondary school, and only two tenths percent will enter the university, the curriculum in primary and secondary schools is designed basically to meet the needs of this very small group of students. Tables 12 and 13 on the following pages, reflect the educational situation. As can be seen, the educational attainment of the unemployed rests in the group of primary drop outs, finishers, and JC completers or drop outs. Most young Basotho have access to primary school but are eliminated along the way either by dropping out or not passing examinations, or because of lack of money, no access to secondary school, or lack of motivation. In addition, the youth and the youth leaders interviewed stated that what education they did receive was not relevant to pursuing employment. As Mr. Nalana put it, "education does not give youth access to work." Another youth leader stated that you "cannot translate this kind of education into a paycheck" (Cook, 1980). The kind of curriculum that is being offered does not prepare young people for the world of work. Mpho could not take her primary education subjects and make them valuable in her environment.

An additional problem regarding schooling, expressed by youth and parents, was that it fostered social alienation. Parents of young adults stated that they felt that

Table 12

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF UNEMPLOYED PERSONS IN LESOTHO, 1976

	Male	Female	Total
Primary Education			
1. Up to Standard 3	2,612	1,492	4,104
2. Up to Standard 7	3,670	7,072	10,742
Secondary Education			
1. Junior Certificate	206	449	665
2. Junior Certificate + Teachers Training	37	42	79
3. Junior Certificate + Vocational Training	4	-	4
4. Matric (COSC) or equivalent	98	137	225
5. Matric + Teachers Training	-	3	3
Higher Education			
1. University first degree	4	1	5
2. Higher degrees	1	3	4
Informal education	5	4	9
Total	6,627	9,203	15,830

Source: Census provisional data, Table 15B

Taken from: ILO, 1979, p. 33.

Table 13

ENROLLMENT PROGRESSION AT DIFFERENT STAGES OF EDUCATION IN LESOTHO (1965 to 1977/78)

	Year[a]	Numbers	Progression from one stage to another (%)	Progression compared to Standard 1 enrollment (%)
Enrollment in Standard 1 (Primary)	1965	52,000	-	-
Enrollment in Standard 7[b]	1971	10,990	21	21
Passes from Standard 7	1971	6,370	58	12
Enrollment in Form A (Secondary)	1972	4,572	72	9
Enrollment in Form C[b]	1974	3,330	73	6
Passes from Form C (JCE)	1974	2,169	65	4
Enrollment in Form D	1975	1,137	52	2
Enrollment in Form E[b]	1976	1,113	98	2
Passes from Form E (COSC)	1976	340	31	0.7
Enrollment in 1 year of university	1977-78	89	26	0.2

Source: Tabulated from Education Statistics 1972, 1976 and 1977 and Annual Statistical Bulletin, 1977.

a/ School-year is calendar year.
b/ These include repeaters.

Taken from: ILO, 1979, p. 198.

the school excluded them from the schooling process and they did not fully understand what was taking place. They put a lot of pressure on their sons and daughters because of the expectations they had about what school could do. Youth felt that parents need information about school and what it could or could not offer. Young people also felt that the school alienated them from the reality of village/rural life. There was such a gap between what they learned in school and what actually went on in their daily lives that the transition to and from formal school was difficult. Many youth said that they dropped out because there was such a gap and they didn't want to be so unlike their parents and grandparents. School was separating them.

However, even at the primary level, schooling provides reading and writing and basic computational skills. Most youth agreed that they would need the minimal literacy skills to survive and cope with daily job and home functions. But they also felt that schooling should give them other basic survival skills and skill training.

As will be seen in Chapter V there are few opportunities in nonformal education programs although out-of-school youth have a strong desire to continue their training to learn skills for economic activities. The few programs available are usually confined to the larger population areas and are open to only a small number of

participants, with boys given admission preference. The youth who finished such programs expressed that they needed not only the skill acquisition but also the application of that skill in "life." They felt that most programs fell short in this area, in addition to not offering any placement services after training. Many youth were left to go back to their villages to figure out ways of using their newly-learned set of skills. With little or no follow-up many were unable to use the skills at all to increase the family income.

In addition, the interviewees stated that there was a lack of information available to either the out-of-school youth or their leaders regarding the world of work. They did not know what opportunities were available to them. As a literacy worker put it, "youth suffer from knowing too little but wanting more and not knowing where to go" (Makhetha, 1980). As with all of the youth in the case studies, they were either misinformed or uninformed, which left them almost immobilized. The youth workers/leaders also complained that in order to help the young people they too needed access to information. "Most young people cannot recognize their own abilities" (Lunde, 1980). Along with information, youth need ways to assess their skills and talents and then to determine how to apply them. If someone had helped Pulane identify her

artistic talent she might be working in an activity where she would be able to make use of it.

Political environment. For over eighty years Basutoland (former name) was a British Protectorate with its administration placed in the hands of a Resident Commissioner. "The initial advantages of British administration, which had adapted itself to the existing social and economic organization of Basotho social structure, were lost with the inevitable development and emergence of new social, political and economic problems" (Schwager, 1972, p. 80). The current government system, put in place with the first elections in 1960, closely resembles a British structure. When Lesotho gained its independence in 1965, a constitutional monarchy was established which still exists today. There is a Prime Minister currently in power and a loose party system exists although elections have not been held for more than ten years.

The political environment is dominated by the relationship of Lesotho with its neighbor, the Republic of South Africa. Lesotho must maintain a fine line of defiance towards the current political stand there to maintain her belief system and her important ties with Western and other African nations. Lesotho is one of the countries that is currently receiving large amounts of foreign aid due to her stand against apartheid and is

becoming a haven for large numbers of South African political refugees who are overcrowding her cities and schools.

At the village level, most administrative decisions are still made by a hierarchical chieftainship system, with age being a factor for participation in local affairs. This directly impacts on the youth, who have concerns about their country.

> Youth want to contribute to the country's development. They sense that there is something wrong with the system but they don't know what to do. They feel the need to better themselves and to better their country. Youth want leadership skills to make decisions about their future. (Majara, 1980).

The above quote by a vocational education instructor sums up many of the thoughts that young people expressed about their political environment. Many felt they wanted to make contributions to village and national development but felt they were being excluded from the process. "We were led to believe that we will have a share in development. What we were not told is how to do it" (Nthejane, 1980). This goes hand-in-hand with the youth's desire for leadership skills and avenues for using this leadership. Those involved in leadership programs are considered to be promoting government and political interests.

Out-of-school youth also felt a need to be involved in the planning and implementation of their own programs.

Often the people who make decisions for the young people are far removed from the situation. The "spokespersons" are not in touch with what the youth really want, and this results in programs that are not responsive to their needs.

The local leaders do not involve youth in community government or discussions, and the young people feel they have no real forum to discuss their concerns and ideas about the future. Youth in schools may have these opportunities, but out-of-school village and urban youth are really excluded from that process.

As might be expected, the youth expressed the need to be involved in decision making concerning their own affairs, but the majority of the youth leaders and parents did not mention this issue. They labeled the young people as "restless" and "wanting their own way" but never recognizing their desire to be part of development, not just its object.

Cultural environment. As with most "developing" countries, Lesotho is a culture in transition. The patterns of traditional values and behavior are presently in conflict with new ones, and are in a state of change. The culture is filled with inconsistencies, and the culture of Lesotho's parents might differ greatly from that of its children.

> Rural communities are no longer contained and unchanging. Migratory labor has been a route of cultural diffusion bringing new ideas and expectations of life into isolated mountain valleys, together with missions, roads and governmental services. Today, there is a growing national awareness of the necessity for developmental change at all levels. The rural communities are going through a process of conscious and unconscious selection whereby new traits from outside the country are incorporated into traditional systems while older customs are either revitalised or discarded. (Lesotho UNICEF, 1976, p. 11)

The family structure of Lesotho is patrilineal, with roles within the family divided along sex lines. Males are considered the decision makers while females are considered "inferior", although given the major responsibility of raising the children and sustaining the home in addition to major agricultural duties. The extended family is still an important structure although fading out in the urban areas.

Young children are given a lot of freedom and are not closely disciplined until they reach the age where they can assume minor tasks around the home. Young girls are often given tasks that relate to the roles they are assumed to take in later life. Their play focuses around playing house, taking care of younger children, cooking, and making miniature toys that resemble household implements. Young boys are usually given the responsibilities of caring for the cattle and goats at a young age and continue that tasks until a younger brother replaces them.

However, young Basotho women are beginning to have thoughts of expanding their female roles in their own culture beyond that of child bearing and rearing. With formal education giving them access to opportunities and information, and role models springing up among the younger generation, the women are questioning their traditional roles within the family and the community. As in both Mpho and Pulane's cases, the girls are no longer willing to wait at home to be married or to remain at home after they are married. Although the institution of "bride price" still exists, young women are not altogether willing to let financial and parental constraints influence their decisions and goals.

In addition the young men are realizing that the practice of herding cattle has definitely placed them in the category of "disadvantaged youth." Because they are forced to herd cattle and not attend school on a regular basis, they find that they do not possess the skills to find jobs or "fit in" locally and that they must migrate to the Republic for temporary mining employment, thus perpetuating a cycle of dependence. As in Thabo's case the cultural practice of herding has placed him in a position of not even having the basic literacy and numeracy skills. But as long as there is a high cultural value put on possession of cattle, there will need to be

caretakers of the animals while the men are in the mines.

Initiation schools used to be an integral part of the rites of passage between childhood and adult life. This was the time that Basotho culture was passed from motherto daughter and from father to son. However, several older youth workers felt that these schools were quickly fading out and few young people were taking part in the traditional teaching of cultural ways. "Adults and children no longer share similar experiences--this is a sad part of development? (Tsephe, 1980).

Not only are youth missing out on learning their cultural heritage but there are problems between the adults and youth about the "new" and the "old" and the "modern" and the "traditional." Youth no longer want to be "old fashioned" but want to be a part of the fast-changing world around them. Conflict and frustration results.

> Elders continue to keep the youth "young". They believe that youth have nothing to offer or contribute to the community. They [youth] get no respect from the community and are not recognized until they reach 18 [males] or are married. (Senior Youth Officers, 1980)

Youth continually comment on the fact that they have more education than their elders but they are not part of the community. Their cultural tradition continues to influence the role that they can assume in their villages.

And, as in the case of Pulane, having a voice in the concerns of her own life seems to be discounted until she can "grow up" (get married).

The culture of Lesotho has been heavily influenced by the Christian church, which has been in that country for over 150 years. The churches play a considerable role in the life of the people through operation of schools, health care, and publishing facilities, in addition to exercising a "profound influence on the social life of the Basotho" (Schwager, 1972, p. 90). Many of the values held in regard in the Basotho culture are those of the church. However, traditional medicine and religion are a part of the culture, and superstition and magic continue to influence the behavior of the population.

Feasts and dancing are the forms of entertainment that are still popular in the rural areas although the young favor radio music and modern dancing. An invasion by the Western culture has influenced the young people, and tourism and migratory labor have had major parts to play in exposing the men and women to other values and behavior.

Psychological environment. As youth interact with these different aspects of their total environment, they have various sets of psychological reactions. Young adults,

trying to cope with a world that is changing around them have individual and composite frustrations and confusion. Basotho youth are not alone in this respect.

The youth that were interviewed spoke of being frustrated, confused, and worried about their future and did not know how to deal with these feelings. Youth leaders have said of them: "Youth are trying to live in the new world and won't accept the old world" (Mokobocho, 1980). "The kids are hesitant to face the modern times: they need support, encouragement, and motivation" (Lesela, 1980). "Youth need coping mechanisms to face the changing times" (Majara, 1980).

Some of this frustration and confusion is caused by the conflict between the educated child and the uneducated adult and by the parents' pressure for them to conform and to meet their high expectations. Peer pressure and conflict is also causing problems among young Basotho: conflict between urban and rural youth and those in school and out of school. Pulane felt that her former school friends looked down on her because she was no longer in school. Urban youth often felt superior to their rural counterparts and this made the rural youth sometimes feel ashamed of who they are and where they came from.

Often out-of-school youth have poor self esteem after being rejected in various attempts at school, jobs,

and community participation. "Most Basotho youth have a self concept which is not positive due to failure; they have tried many avenues [only] to have the door shut in their faces" (Lunde, 1980). Youth express needs to have recognition as adults; they are tired of being ignored. Their elders continue to treat them as children and as if they had nothing to offer.

Some of the attitudes that youth have acquired lead to frustration. School has given them the attitude that manual work is not as desirable as office jobs and that agriculture is the lowliest of jobs. This attitude is especially prevalent in young people who attended schools where garden work was used as a punishment. Most youth have adopted the attitude that schooling equals success and that the only way they are going to make it is by acquiring as much formal education as they can. Almost every young person interviewed spoke of hoping to go back to school, gaining more certificates, taking more exams.

Dr. Montsi of the Career Guidance Office in the Ministry of Education (1980), attributed most of youth's frustrations and psychological lows to "lack of choice." When the youth realize that there are not many options in life they become rebellious against their parents, teachers, and authority in general. In interviews with out-of-school youth all over Lesotho, Montsi has observed

the feeling of hopelessness and depression. They have nowhere to go and no one to turn to who understands their position and desires. "Parents feel insecure and exert authority over the child. They no longer feel involved in their child's world and do not know how to cope with their children's demands" (1980).

Summary

As can be seen from comparing the needs and characteristics of youth in the global context with those of Lesotho, many commonalities emerge. These common needs and problems relate to such concerns as: institutional inadequacies; frustration over new roles and responsibilities without the accompanying rights; unrealistic job aspirations and lack of choices; disparities and conflict between rural and urban youth; lack of communication between and among youth and adults; and being part of a group that is regarded as a problem.

However, the individual and collective needs and problems of Lesotho's youth are unique because of the special place Lesotho occupies geographically and the kinds of attention Lesotho has received as a protectorate of Britain and then as an independent nation. The economic, social and political condition of the country at any given time is directly and indirectly related to the actions of

South Africa and its newly created "independent nations." Therefore, as Lesotho and her people are placed in a "wait-and-see" position, this puts added stress on the youth of the country and their futures.

The Tables in Chapter II (pp. 32,35) reflect many other interesting facts that bear on the special position of youth in Lesotho. They have a better chance of attending primary school than in other countries, and, in some age groups, there are more girls than boys enrolled. Lesotho's literacy rate is said to be one of the highest on the continent, which means that the parents of Lesotho's children may be more literate and many demand more from their children and the educational structures as a whole.

The bleak economic situation in Lesotho is not unlike other nonindustrialized countries of its class. Employment opportunities for young males still have their major focus on the mines or other work places in South Africa, and the heavy tolls of migratory labor have been recorded. The employment objectives for the coming years internally concentrate on: expanded agricultural production; promotion of the manufacturing sector and encouragement of local entrepreneurship; expansion of the building trades; expansion of tourism and mining; development of labor-intensive works; and assistance to the informal sector (Kingdom of Lesotho, 1979, p. 45). How

these projected activities will involve youth is not mentioned, nor are specific training opportunities available for such activities. As will be seen in Chapter V, the offerings for out-of-school youth are limited in scope and may or may not relate to the employment projections of the government.

C H A P T E R V

PROGRAMS FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH IN LESOTHO

Introduction

The chapter which follows explores out-of-school youth programs in Lesotho with particular consideration of their use of vocational guidance. The first section describes the programs selected and the areas explored during the interviews. The second section examines each program by summarizing their focus and audience; what needs the programs address; the use of vocational guidance; and the program components that contribute to or constrain the use of vocational guidance. Summaries of each program appear at the conclusion of each description. The third section collates the variables which exist in each component as they relate to the use of vocational guidance in Lesotho.

Selection and Process

As stated in Chapter I, the youth programs were selected according to the following criteria:

1. programs whose primary focus is on the target population or which include out-of-school youth among their participants;

2. programs with a major nonformal education and/or training component;

3. programs comprising a mix of government and private organizations and agencies; and

4. programs accessible to the researcher.

From an initial list of out-of-school organizations, those programs that fit the criteria were selected for the study. Programs were added and eliminated during the course of the research depending upon the criteria as well as the willingness of the youth leaders and planners to discuss them with the researcher. At this point in the research, youth participants were only used for validation and clarification.

The following is a list of those programs and organizations participating in the research:

1. The Juvenile Detention Center
2. Young Farmers Clubs
3. Farmers Training Centers
4. Lesotho Opportunities Industrialization Center
5. Lesotho Distance Teaching Center
6. Lesotho Youth Service
7. Thaba Khupa Ecumenical Farm Institute
8. Royal Crown Jewelers

Other programs catering to youth but not included in this

survey are noted in the Appendix. Many of these serve the in-school youth population, and while they make a necessary and valuable contribution to the young people, they were not part of this research.*

A basic checklist was used as a guideline for the visits to the programs and agencies. The general categories to be explored were:

leadership (staff and planners)

participants

philosophy and objectives

activities and content

planning process

funding/control

follow-up

The Appendix contains the interview guides used with youth, youth leaders, and youth administrators and planners. Additional questions were asked regarding the use of vocational guidance. Specifically those questions were:

1. Do you give youth a chance to learn about self? (interests, skills, abilities)

2. Do you give youth information about occupations?

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*It is important to note that in the Five Year Plans of 1969/70-1974/75, 1974/75-1979/80 and 1979/80-1984/85 (draft) there was no mention of a National Youth Policy. Further discussion on this point can be found in Chapter VI.

3. Do you help match their skills with jobs?

4. Do you give youth information about training/ educational opportunities?

5. Do you give youth information on how training and education are related to their future work?

6. Do you give youth skills they can use to generate income/to become self reliant? Entrepreneurial skills?

7. Do you give youth skills they can use to find jobs in the formal sector?

8. Do you give youth information on employment possibilities; the state of the labor market, etc.?

9. Do you assist youth with obtaining skills for job getting?

10. Do you assist youth with placement services? Do you provide other supportive services to help their entry into the world of work?

11. Do you give youth a forum/opportunity to discuss their needs, problems and frustrations regarding the world of work?

12. Do you assist youth with the development of skills to carry out productive and positive relationships with others?

Program Summaries

The following section contains information about each program and agency with special focus on the needs of youth addressed, the program's use of vocational guidance, and the contributing and constraining variables of the program components which influence that use.

Juvenile Detention Center

Description. The Juvenile Detention Center in Maseru is under the Department of Prisons, Ministry of Justice, and is the only facility of its kind in Lesotho. It caters to boys up to the age of 18 and has a capacity for 30 juveniles at any one time. The delinquents are placed there after they have committed such crimes as theft, pickpocketing, breaking and entering, using drugs and loitering. The majority have little or no schooling; of the current residents, only 30% have completed some primary education. Many come from broken homes or are homeless, as in the case of Lebohang in Chapter IV. They have come to the major urban areas seeking food, shelter, and jobs.

The program for the boys consists primarily of formal educaton classes and manual labor. The classes are in writing and reading, maths, and gardening. For many of the boys this is a second chance scheme to gain some level of literacy and numeracy. The Juvenile Center works closely

with the Lesotho Distance Teaching Center for literacy instruction. Many of the detention workers are former primary school teachers and are skilled at helping the boys with basic education. The Center has included skills training in their long-range plans.

Use of vocational guidance. The Center uses a wide variety of vocational and personal guidance methods to assist the boys under their supervision. These include:

1. The officers help the boys find jobs when they complete their stay. Most of the jobs, such as gardening and manual labor, are in the informal sector. There is an attempt to place the boys back into their original communities. The officers work with community groups, such as the churches, to help in the transition back into the community.

2. The officers work with parents or guardians, where possible, although many of the boys are described as "homeless." This involves solving problems of conflict between the adults and the adolescents, as well as assisting the parents/ guardians in understanding the delinquents' problems regarding their readjustment to the community.

3. The officers do individual counseling with each of the boys to try to help them assess their problems and to find solutions. In addition they discuss setting goals

regarding employment and education.

4. The Detention Center holds group guidance sessions where the world of work is discussed: how to find jobs, what to expect on the job, proper "work behavior," opportunities for further training and education, and interpersonal relations.

5. Follow-up is a regular part of the procedure at the Detention Center and consists of meeting with the boys and their employers.

Needs addressed. The vocational guidance methods as well as the other activities and content of the Center attempt to address the following programmatic and youth needs:

1. The need for access to information about the world of work.

2. The need for skills to cope with the economy

3. The need for additional education, training, and survival skills.

4. The need for parents/guardians involvement in the lives of their children.

5. The need to remove the feelings of alienation from the environment.

6. The need to have good adult models.

7. The need for recognition.

8. The need to be placed in jobs and to have follow-up services to assist with adjustment on the job.

9. The need to have decision makers involved in the lives of the youth. The youth officers conduct periodic needs assessments with the tsotsis in the city to be in a position to better understand their clientele.

10. The need for time to discuss the future and life concerns.

Not all of these needs are addressed equally; there is more emphasis on some than on others. Furthermore, not all of the needs are being completely met. However, attempts are being made to meet the above needs, and in most areas there is a wide range of responses.

Influence of program components on use of vocational guidance. How are the officers at the Juvenile Detention Center able to integrate vocational guidance into their programs? What are the various forces that contribute to or constrain the use of vocational guidance? The following analysis should answer these questions.

1. Staff. The officers at the Center have been trained by the Career Guidance Office of the Ministry of Education through an inservice program. The staff seemed to feel that guidance and counseling and psychology should be an important, ongoing goal of their staff development program.

The positive staff attitudes and level of caring about the boys make guidance an easy part of their job. The men who work there are committed to the total care of the juvenile.

In addition, the staff at the Center hold periodic seminars to discuss individual cases and solutions. These are usually followed-up by individual sessions with the boys which may or may not include the parents.

All members of the staff concluded that they could use more reinforcement of their guidance role in the Juvenile Center. If there could be more staff development in this area which included supervisors and other personnel in the Prisons Department, it might give them more confidence and motivation to continue with their work

2. Participants. The staff felt that the youth have very obvious needs that could be diagnosed, most of which indeed fall into the broad spectrum of vocational guidance. With diagnosis the benefits of counseling services to the youth would be obvious.

The participants have common needs/problems which easily form a basis for group discussions and forums. The small ratio between the officers and the juveniles is also a contributing factor to the use of vocational guidance. A high level of individual attention can be given to the

boys because of the small number in residence at the Center. The boys are very responsive to the guidance methods.

3. Philosophy and objectives. The overall philosophy and objectives of the Juvenile Center are centered on rehabilitation and helping the boys integrate back into society. When interviewed; the staff indicated that this philosophy was unique among prisons, most places they had observed were focused instead on punishment. However, the objectives are not written down or finely articulated. They are dependent on the current staff and their interests.

4. Activities and content. Except for the manual labor part of the program, all of the other activities contribute, in one way of another, to the development of basic educational and survival skills.

The officers felt that the range of their activities and program content was limited because of lack of information that exists in the area of vocational guidance. They felt they could be more effective if they "knew what was going on in the world of work" (Leqele, 1980).

The officers at the Center would like to expand their program to include specific skills training but do not have the expertise or money to institute such an activity.

5. Planning. Extensive research has been done by the Senior Principal Officer of the Center on the boys' home conditions, the conditions on the street, and the needs and problems of the youth in general. To a certain extent, these findings have been incorporated into the planning process for curriculum and content areas. The philosophy of rehabilitation and of developing the whole person is used when planning the program and underlies principles taught in their inservice programs.

6. Funding/control. Officers at the Detention Center seem to have flexibility for formulating the kind of program which was felt to be necessary without taking direct orders from Prison headquarters. The officers said that their superior officers were "progressive" in their attitudes about the youth facility and approved of the direction of the program.

The funding of the program comes from the central government budget, which is meager at best. The facility can maintain its current program, but there is no possibility of expanding the activities in the near future. As mentioned earlier, the officers want to include skills training in the program but the budget is not large enough to accommodate a change in the Center's offerings. In addition, the officers hinted at the fact that they would like to do more outreach into the community if there was

additional funding. There are no major outside donors currently contributing to the support of the Center.

7. Follow-up. The Center spends much time and energy on follow-up after the boys have left their supervision. They have been able to measure their success in the use of vocational guidance techniques by the way the boys have found jobs, sought further training, and have become a part of the "legitimate" work force.

With only one officer in the Career Guidance Office in the Ministry of Education, and a National Employment Service that is just getting off the ground, the types of referral resources are limited. The staff at the Center felt that in some cases it was necessary to refer the boys to other services but were not sure of just where to find such help.

Another problem is the lack of interagency communication regarding the use of vocational guidance. Because the main focus of this work lies within the formal school system, it is uncommon to find it being carried out formally in the out-of-school arena. The officers felt that if there were more cooperation and communication between and among agencies, their follow-up work would be more effective.

Additional comments. From observation and discussions with some of the boys in the Center, it appears that the officers are dedicated to the principles of

vocational guidance and its use in the Center. However, the amount of time actually devoted to such activities is highly questionable. Further, some of the clients seemed to receive more attention than others in the area of job placement, education/training opportunities and follow-up. With the work load of the officers, it is little wonder that they have time for activities over and above their normal work day.

Given the amount of resources available to the staff of the Detention Center, the program seems to be meeting the needs of the individual youth as well as societal goals. The Center might be labeled a "successful" program because it does help young boys find jobs, adjust to the world of work, and feel a part of the community that they return to. If additional resources were available, the Center would be capable of improving its services to the youth in the areas of vocational skills.

Table 14

SUMMARY OF JUVENILE DETENTION CENTER PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION: government-sponsored
capacity: 30 boys ages 12-18
goal: rehabilitation through literacy/numeracy, formal education, gardening, manual labor
durstion: variable

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: job placement/follow-up
parental contact/involvement
individual counseling
group guidance

NEEDS ADDRESSED: information
survival skills
additional training/education
parental involvement
remove feelings of alienation
good adult role models
recognition
placement/follow-up
decisions made by those involved directly with youth
forum for discussion

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	inservice training staff recognition of importance of guidance caring attitudes group problem solving	lack of reinforcement of guidance function inconsistent staff development heavy work load
2. Participants	easily diagnosed needs common needs/problems small staff/youth ratio	varying amounts of individual attention; inconsistent
3. Philosophy/Objectives	centered on rehab and integration	not formalized dependent on current staff
4. Activities/content	development of survival skills/basic education	lack of guidance information no expertise/money for expansion
5. Planning	comprehensive needs assessment philosophy incorporated entire staff involved	
6. Funding/control	flexibility	meager central government budget no outside donors
7. Follow-up	placement evaluate results of vocational guidance efforts	limited referral resources lack of interagency cooperation

Young Farmers Clubs

Description. The Young Farmers Clubs (also called 3-B Clubs) are a section of the Ministry of Agriculture and function similarly to the 4-H clubs in the United States. They were originally started in response to an FAO survey to improve nutrition and health in the rural areas. The members are aged ten to fourteen, with most in the thirteen/fourteen age range; they are either in school, or have dropped out of or finished primary school. All of the clubs are in the lowlands, with girls comprising over seventy percent of the membership. Currently there are approximately 2000 members.

The clubs are organized by agricultural extension officers with the help of the local village chief. However, the villagers themselves actually take the major responsibility for the clubs. The content of the programs depends on what skills the extension officers and/or the villagers are capable of teaching. Most often the content includes: gardening, agronomy, soil conservation, handicrafts, sewing, cooking, and a wide range of general skills that the participants can use at home and in the village. The main focus is on creating self reliance, and the members are expected to create group or individual projects. Some recreational activities are offered in addition to the above content.

Use of vocational guidance. The majority of the Young Farmers Clubs have no organized vocational guidance activities, according to the Coordinator. Individual organizers may help the young people with their work-related problems, but there are no such stated objectives in the overall national program. Most of the clubs attempt to give youth prevocational skills to generate income or to become self-reliant, with the majority preparing girls to become better helpers in the home.

However, when individual clubs were visited, a wide range of vocational activities was observed. Types of activities included:

1. group guidance/discussion groups on issues of interpersonal skills and relations, on the job world and how to survive economically in the rural villages, and on future educational and training opportunities;
2. individual job placement and follow-up;
3. individual counseling;
4. group lectures on self reliance and community development.

Needs addressed. The programmatic and youth needs that the Young Farmers Clubs address are:

1. Improvement of the home and the surrounding environment.

2. The need for recognition in the village by the chief and the adults.

3. The need for ways to make contributions to village and personal development.

4. The need to develop positive attitudes towards manual labor.

5. The need to involve parents/adults in the lives of the youth.

6. The need to have good role models for rural youth.

7. The need to find channels for young people to exercise leadership ability and potential.

Other specific needs were addressed depending upon the particular, individual program. With each club doing their own particular programming, differences of needs met are likely to occur.

Influence of program components on use of vocational guidance. The following analysis evaluates the program components:

1. Staff. Individual staff (extension officers) and leaders see their role as helping youth members rather than only delivering programmatic content. Personal styles and personalities contribute to the leaders' use of vocational guidance techniques in most cases.

The overall leadership of the Young Farmers Clubs

recognizes the need for staff development but does not have the expertise or time to conduct such a program. Many of the organizers have little or no formal training in working with youth and are selected on a voluntary basis. The extension workers do have some training but recognize that it is incomplete. Many desire to have vocational guidance methods and theory as part of their preservice or inservice training but indicated that the overall leadership in the Agricultural Ministry does not link the program content with the world of work.

2. Participants. The Young Farmers that were interviewed felt that they gained most from the social, recreational, and economic aspects of club activities. Those young people who were actually growing or making products to use in the home or to sell in the markets felt that was the major reason for attending demonstrations and classes. They indicated a desire to learn how to make greater use of their newly learned skills to contribute to the family income and for village development. They wanted more information about further training, literacy, and their futures in general.

Because the agricultural base is insufficient to support rural families, encouraging youth to learn skills that the land might not be able to accommodate is problematic. It often creates frustration and a negative

attitude toward manual labor. In addition, the cultural values of the village do not allow young people to have their own land, and facilities and equipment are limited. Therefore, whatever is taught and encouraged in the clubs must be in line with what status the youth hold in a particular village.

3. Philosophy and Objectives. The stated objectives of the Young Farmers Clubs on a national level center around the following: encouraging fruit and vegetable production; promoting subsidiary occupations; encouraging demonstration/experimental plots; developing cultural, recreational and welfare activities; encouraging thrift, self-help and cooperation; disseminating knowledge relating to agricultural improvement and food preparation; encouraging handicrafts; and encouraging anti-erosion methods. Youth are given skills they can use to generate income and to become self reliant.

But there seems to be no direct aim at linking the skills acquired by the youth to the labor market. Therefore, it is possible for the youth to end up with skills that they cannot use in the world of work, especially in the informal sector.

If each club were encouraged to formulate their own set of objectives with inputs from youth, there might be a closer relationship between the specific set of youth

involved in that particular program and the context within which those youth will have to interact with the world of work.

4. Activities and Content. The activities and content of most of the programs are based on what skills the organizers and the extension officers can offer rather than on the needs, interests, and skills of the youth involved in the program. A needs assessment is rarely done as a matter of course, and the youth are mostly provided with whatever subject matter the leaders are qualified and capable to give. Little attempt is made to assess village and community resources to broaden the scope of the programs.

The organizers/leaders have not had training in vocational guidance methods and subject matter and, therefore, are not prepared to initiate such topics within their club's overall program. The leaders that were interviewed admitted that this was a necessary content area for the rural youth but felt that they did not have enough training or information to provide it.

As there are few activities for boys, the majority of the club members are girls. The coordinator at the national level stated that "materials for girls' courses are cheaper," and with limited money that is what the clubs have to offer. Mr. Matlere (1980) commented that

"with the introduction of woodworking, more boys joined."

5. Planning. Current planning by the Farmers Clubs' Coordinators at the central office includes strategies for working with other agencies such as the Youth Affairs Council, Lesotho Workcamps Association, Red Cross, Boy Scouts and Girl Guides plus resources in the Ministry of Education. The planners recognize that there is a repetition of services offered to the youth and that there should be more coordination to improve services and relationships among organizations dealing with youth affairs.

In addition the seed was planted to begin to integrate vocational guidance activities into the content of the clubs. The coordinator is willing and enthusiastic to include such activities in future planning.

However, the majority of the decision making and control is handled by the Chief Extension Officer, who does not appear to have much interest in the Young Farmers Clubs or knowledge about what the youth of Lesotho need and therefore, this program receives token interest and energy.

At the local level, planning is done by the organizers, with input from the supervisors in the area and the extension agents. As stated earlier, plans seem to rest with whatever the leaders can offer and are focused on the national objectives.

6. Funding/Control. The Young Farmers Clubs have been successful in acquiring funds from international donor agencies to provide transportation and subsistence for the youth when they travel from their villages to attend activities. This has been helpful in broadening the number of activities offered to the youth.

In addition the local clubs are helped with money from the central government for materials, salaries and other basic kinds of support. Local clubs are fairly independent of central control except in the case of distribution of money. Because of relative indifference of the Ministry towards the Young Farmers Clubs, the budget is minimal, and this, in turn, limits the diversity of programming in the local clubs. In addition, lack of funds constrains staff development activities, materials for leaders, and visits by supervisory staff to the local areas.

Receiving funds from international donor agencies has both positive and negative aspects. The donor agency sets specific limits on how much can be spent for what purpose and during what period of time, and this influences program objectives and controls the kinds of programming possible.

7. Follow-up. Little or no systematic follow-up is done on whether the specific objectives of the program

are being met or whether the young people in a particular area or club have benefitted from affiliating with the Young Farmers Clubs. Some interested leaders do an informal evaluation because they keep in contact with individual club members in their own communities and can observe what the youth have learned or have been able to use.

Little attention is paid to helping the young people get land or equipment for such activities as production of handicrafts or rabbit raising, or for getting jobs in the formal or informal sector related to the skills they learned in the clubs' programs. Individual leaders may do this on their own, but the general consensus is that this is not done.

Additional comments. From discussions with the coordinator and the leaders of various clubs, the Young Farmers Clubs are a national program that needs much more attention by the authorities in the Ministry of Agriculture and elsewhere. The leaders are willing to expand and include more and varied activities, including those relating to vocational guidance, but their hands are tied by lack of funding and interest. Using volunteers to run programs creates a situation where there is a wide range of variation between programs. It was difficult to get an overall sense of the general pattern among these groups.

To evaluate the success of the Young Farmers Clubs one has to refer back to program objectives: do the clubs in fact prepare young people for the world of work? Most Young Farmers learn minimal skills related to income producing activities but have little knowledge of how these skills can necessarily improve their income. Whether any of the skills they learn through club activities actually help them find jobs in the formal or informal sector is unclear, although my suspicion would be a negative one. The clubs are probably not very successful in helping prepare young people prepare for and adjust to the world of work although individual development needs as well as manpower utilization goals may be met through the activities. These answers could be found if evaluations were conducted with specific criteria related to the world of work.

Table 15

SUMMARY OF YOUNG FARMERS CLUBS PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION: government-sponsored
current membership: 2000 ages 10-14; 70% girls; most 13-14 primary school drop outs or finishers
goal: self reliant skills in agriculture/home economics, related areas
duration: variable

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: little organized activities
some individual efforts in group guidance, placement, counseling, group lectures

NEEDS ADDRESSED: improve home/surroundings
recognition
contribute to personal/village development
positive attitudes to manual labor
parental involvement
good role models
exercise leadership ability

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	personal styles of leaders individual role definition	limited staff development no expertise in vocational guidance no formal training in youth affairs leadership does not link programs with world of work
2. Participants	feel need to be involved in clubs use skills for income generation want more information on world of work	no access to land cultural values negative attitudes toward labor/agric. limited to lowlands
3. Philosophy/Objectives	centered on income generation/self reliance	no attempt to link with world of work central objectives; no individual club objectives no youth involvement
4. Activities/content	attempts to help youth gain skills to earn money/ improve homes	based on skills of organizers not on youth needs no training of vocational guidance limitations for boys
5. Planning	interagency cooperation/ strategies	most done at central level with little interest on supervisor's part lack of youth involvement
6. Funding/control	assistance from international donors local clubs have some independence budget from central government	lack of funds for staffing/materials donor agencies limit uses of funds
7. Follow-up	informal evaluation by local leaders	no support services

Farmers Training Centers

Description. There are six Farmers Training Centers in the country located both in the mountains and in the lowlands. Their function is to: run short residential courses on a variety of agricultural subjects for farmers; serve as venues for holding inservice training courses for officials of the Ministry of Agriculture; offer young farmers training courses; provide facilities for farmers' meetings; and provide facilities for other governmental and parastatal organizations to hold courses and meetings.

Four of the Centers provide youth training which consists of a ten month course for boys and girls aimed at "developing youth interest in agriculture and home economics, and to provide them with a basic knowledge in these subjects so that they could be effective farmers amongst the communities in which they live" (FTC Annual Report 1979-80, p. 2). Each Center can accommodate thirty-two participants.

The participants in these programs are youth between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one who have finished primary school or who are secondary school drop outs. There are more girls participating than boys, as the boys are "reluctant to waste their time" (Marole, 1980). During 1979-80 sixty-five of the eighty-four participants

in the programs were girls. The types of courses included home economics, mother/house craft, animal husbandry, crop husbandry, horticulture, soil conservation, and civics. The civics course consists of paramilitary training given by the Lesotho Youth Service/Police Mobile Unit.

Use of vocational guidance. The overall training program does not have any vocational guidance focus, although individual leaders and instructors have their own ways of performing this function within their programs. The officer in charge of the program gave the following examples:

1. Many instructors do job placement, assisting the youth to find jobs. These might include the PMU (Police Mobile Unit), the mines, weaving establishments, "private enterprise," and hotels. Few graduates end up in farming although most of the girls are encouraged to return home to help their parents (usually mothers), since it is the Basotho women who bear the agricultural burden of the country.

2. The Centers offer training in skills for self reliance, including ways to make the family plot of land more productive.

3. Individual counseling and group guidance activities are occasionally done, but this depends on the individual styles and interest of the leaders.

4. Dormitory living has the potential to give youth opportunities to discuss common problems and needs and serves to foster productive peer relationships.

Needs addressed. Vocational guidance activities such as these attempt to address the following youth and programmatic needs:

1. The need for skills to cope with the economy.

2. The need for skills to make contributions to village and family development.

3. The need for skills in interpersonal relations.

4. The need for assistance in finding jobs in the formal and informal sector.

5. The need for positive attitudes toward agricultural work/manual labor.

6. The need for recognition in the village.

Other needs not identified by the coordinator could be met through other vocational guidance activities.

Influence of program components on use of vocational guidance.

1. Staff. Some of the trainers in the Farmers Training Centers are caring and dedicated people who see their roles with the youth as more than teaching classes. Since many of the youth have no intention of going into agriculture, attempts are made by individuals to assist them to find other alternatives.

There is no formal training for the leaders in these Centers to incorporate vocational guidance into their program. Many leaders said they might try it out if they know how. Others see what they do as simply a job; they have no interest in helping the youth with adjusting to the world of work.

There is a large turnover of staff. Many see working at the Centers as a stepping stone to jobs higher up in the hierarchical structure of the Ministry of Agriculture. This pattern discourages introducing innovative techniques into the programs at the Centers.

Several of the staff were discouraged that in spite of their efforts, few youth were interested in going into agriculture: this affected staff morale, influencing the quality of their work.

2. Participants. With few other avenues for further training, the youth come to these Centers with a need for education and social interaction. Because the courses are free, they attract a poorer segment of the population. The girls, who generally have fewer training opportunities, are especially enthusiastic about being able to leave their villages to attend the program. The boys, generally, attend in hopes of being able to be absorbed into the police.

In many ways the training for girls is unrealistic:

it encourages them to desire access to land to become self reliant and to earn money, but in fact most will return to their villages only to work in the family plot. As a result, they feel discouraged and frustrated upon their return. As in many programs, the participants are not given sufficient support to make the transition back to the village and the world of work in their own context.

As has been stated in other sections, the youth come to the program with their own agendas which often do not include learning agricultural or home economics skills. Many prefer to go to the urban centers to look for jobs; they see this as a way of leaving the village for the city with parental permission and encouragement.

3. Philosophy/Objectives. The philosophy of the Farmers Training Centers is to develop self reliance and the learning of basic skills to contribute to the productivity of the agricultural base in the villages and to home improvement. It is unclear how this philosophy is translated into specific objectives for the various subjects and classes taught to the young people. Such objectives are not formally spelled out. Individual trainers are not encouraged to set objectives that specifically relate to the specific locality of the courses or the context within which they are operating.

It seems that the overall philosophy bears little relation to the needs and interests of the youth. Many of the young people see the courses as a stepping stone for further education and training and, if this is the case, then the objectives should reflect this prevocational or training aspect.

4. Activities/Content. The activities and content of the courses attempt to give youth skills to contribute to village and individual development with emphasis on agriculture and home economics. There seems to be an underlying theme of making the girls better housewives/mothers. However, there seem to be only minimal attempts at helping the youth make the transition from the course to the actual village setting. Many youth leave the courses with little or no ability to use their skills in a productive way at home. This is especially important given the cultural context where adults will not readily accept the "new" techniques that the youth might have been taught. The young people return to their homes to help their parents (mostly mothers) with improved farming techniques, but they are rarely listened to.

Another cultural constraint to the effectiveness of instruction provided by the courses is that while the women bear the agricultural "burden", the men are still the decision-makers. It may be unrealistic to provide

young women with skills and problem-solving techniques that they cannot use. Only if adults--and particularly the men--are included in the process can application of such new skills be expected to have effect. And because the young women will have trouble getting access to the land this makes them less enthusiastic and willing to use their skills.

If most girls and boys who finish the courses are not in fact going into agriculture, then their needs to be a serious reconsideration of the types of activities offered. Given a prevalent "anti-agriculture" attitude among the youth, the present curriculum may be irrelevant.

5. Planning. Much of the planning of the course content and activities is left up to individual training centers. Where staff saw the need for it, a vocational guidance component could be incorporated into their program. At present, however, planning seems based less on the needs, interests, skills and attitudes of the youth in the area than on the skills and interests of the leaders and instructors. Each FTC program is planned and organized around the abilities of those in the area that are willing and able to teach the courses.

6. Funding/Control. All funding for the program comes from the Ministry of Agriculture. As it seems to be a major priority, it is in little danger of getting its

funds cut, even though informal evaluations seem to indicate that it is not fulfilling its goals.

The leadership in the Central Office seems to be weak and not overly concerned about the quality of the Young Farmers courses. Efforts at innovation or improvement would have to come from the individual centers.

7. Follow-up. There has been an effort on the part of the planners to find out what happens to the young people who finish the courses. However, this is usually done informally: the instructors are asked about the youth in their geographical locality.

In this particular case, it is absolutely essential to follow-up on the youth if the usefulness of their newly acquired skills is to be assured and reinforced. But, because of lack of staff and little understanding of its value, such follow-up is not being done. Youth are returning to their communities without support or the confidence to use their skills.

Additional comments. The leaders who were interviewed at individual centers were generally very negative about the FTC's and the Young Farmers courses. They felt that the goals of the programs were not being accomplished: the courses were being used by the youth as a way of finding jobs in the cities; little was being done to

promote interest in agriculture among the young people. Most of the leaders felt that there should be more coordination among all of the agricultural departments to make more of a united effort. There was repetition of services between Young Farmers Clubs, the extension services, and some of the major agricultural development projects. Many were bitter about the lack of leadership at the central office; they felt that they could be more responsive to the needs of the youth and more highly motivated to add innovative techniques to their courses if they were rewarded through recognition from their superiors.

In some respects, the Farmers Training Centers are successful in their role in preparing youth for the world of work. They provide a recruiting vehicle for the Police Mobile Unit and for other employers looking for young people for their organizations. It is possible that some young people who do return to their villages are more interested in agriculture than they were, bringing new and valuable skills back with them.

However, this research indicates that the programs do not seem to be meeting the manpower needs of the informal agricultural sector. The young people are not

generating substantial income from agricultural tasks, nor are the full range of their human development needs being met.

The potential role of vocational guidance in this program could be to bring the goals of the agricultural sector in line with the aspirations of the youth and the employers. In addition, the youth could be helped to translate those skills into income producing activities so they would not be led off the land into marginal jobs in the urban areas. In particular the majority of girls who enter into these programs should be given equal attention from the instructors and their subsequent employers in terms of their potential contribution to the labor force and the world of work.

Table 16

SUMMARY OF FARMERS TRAINING CENTER PROGRAMS

DESCRIPTION: government-sponsored
4 of 6 centers cater to youth; 32 each-capacity; 1979/80, 65 out of 84 participants were girls
goal: developing skills in agriculture, home economics, civics
duration: 10 months

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: no central focus
some individual efforts in job placement, self reliance skills, individual and group counseling, group living

NEEDS ADDRESSED: survival/employment skills
contribute to village and family development
interpersonal relations
job placement in formal and informal sector
positive attitudes toward agriculture/manual labor
recognition

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	individual role interpretation favors assisting youth	no formal training large staff turnover negative attitudes about centers
2. Participants	disadvantaged section of population girls very enthusiastic boys can gain access to jobs	youth see participation as an escape/route to job in urban center limited for boys unrealistic expectations
3. Philosophy/Objectives	focus on self reliance/agricultural productivity	not formalized don't match with needs of youth or actual program results no objectives at individual centers
4. Activities/Content	attempts to give skills for income generation	no transitional skills to relate course to village realities cultural barriers to youth's involvement in village development or female decision making re: agriculture relevancy in question
5. Planning	individual centers have some flexibility to institute vocational guidance activities	based on skills of organizers
6. Funding/control	priority program in Ministry	weak control at decision-making levels
7. Follow-up	informal evaluation/tracer studies	lack of formal follow-up and use of existing information

Lesotho Opportunities Industrialization Center

Description. The LOIC is a private, community-based vocational training center established to provide technical and vocational training for primary and secondary school drop outs and adults. The Center in Lesotho is part of an American/international organization designed to: train the unskilled and the under-employed; upgrade the skills of the under-employed, provide vocational training which complies with the needs of Lesotho industries; provide on the job training for all trainees; provide the employer with a highly-skilled, dependable and motivated employee; and work jointly with Lesotho companies to keep training relevant to projected manpower needs.

Seventy-five percent of the 1980 group of approximately fifty trainees were between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five with fifteen percent of these being girls. The average academic qualification of the trainees was between Standard 7 and Form C (American equivalent grade seven to grade ten). Most of the young people came from the urban areas and were dependent upon their parents for support.

The fifteen-month training period consists of the following components: feeder courses of three to six months designed to prepare the "whole person" for vocational training and subsequent job placement and retention

(communication skills, computation skills, personal development, consumer education, job finding and retention techniques, cultural history); vocational courses of nine to twelve months (carpentry, masonry, plumbing, sheet metalling); counseling services (individual counseling, group counseling, trainee referrals, assessment, and student services); and job development (industrial contact, development of jobs, and placement and follow-up).

Use of vocational guidance. Vocational guidance is part of the overall formal program of the LOIC, in addition to its being an expected attitude and behavior pattern of the teachers, administrators, and board of directors. The trained counselors and teachers incorporate the following techniques at the Center:

1. Diagnostic assessments of all trainees to match their educational and skills level with the appropriate technical area.

2. Individual and group counseling sessions with all trainees to discuss personal, academic, financial, and vocational problems and concerns.

3. The counselors and teachers work with the parents to lessen conflicts and expectations and to involve them in the life of the Center.

4. Part of the feeder course consists of learning skills for job-getting and job retention.

5. An extensive job placement program with follow-up services once the trainee is placed. Ongoing contact with the employer and the employee is part of the program.

6. An overall "counseling atmosphere" is encouraged at the Center.

Needs addressed. This extensive counseling program attempts to address the individual needs of the trainees as well as programmatic needs:

1. The need to find ways for youth to cope with the economy and to stay in Lesotho for employment.

2. The need to find productive ways to involve parents and young adults in active dialogue about the activities of the youth.

3. The need to obtain relevant training and education to meet the needs of Lesotho's world of work.

4. The need to provide job opportunities alternative to the mines.

5. The need to recognize each person as an individual and match his/her capabilities to an appropriate vocational choice.

6. The need to give urban youth survival skills to cope with the environment.

7. The need to provide adequate support services to make the transition from school to work a smooth one.

8. The need to enhance the self image and self esteem of the youth after repeated rejections from school, home and the work place.

9. The need to have updated information about the opportunities available and removal of the feelings of isolation.

10. The need to give young girls skills that they can use to make a good income and make them less dependent on their parents.

11. The need to have a forum to discuss the frustrations, concerns and problems unique to youth.

12. The need to develop productive and positive interpersonal relationships with peer and adults.

13. The need to develop skills and learn information about adult roles and responsibilities.

Influence of program components on use of vocational guidance.

1. Staff. The staffing pattern of the LOIC includes counselors who are hired specifically to carry out the vocational guidance role in the center. The current local counselor is assisted by a trained counselor from the United States, and there are plans to hire another Mosotho counselor.

The instructors that are selected to work at the LOIC are not only chosen for their skills and abilities

in traditional teaching methods and technical areas but must possess the following characteristics:

-does he like people and accept himself
-awareness of the target population (their problems, needs, pressures, priorities)
-does he understand and accept the philosophy of the LOIC
-ability to relate to people
-understanding of job-task analysis and can he simplify instruction to meet each trainees needs
-willingness to become involved and talk with students
-can he listen
-does he have community contacts
-willingness to keep informed and upgrade self in occupational area
-does he have emotional stability
-understanding of concept of on-the-job training
-assess the trainee and adapt/modify methods to meet needs
-utilization of group dynamics in the classroom
-knowledge and use of supportive student services
-ability to teach students subject matter
-maintain trainees' dignity
-maintain relevancy of subject matter to trainee needs
-ability to anticipate and respond to non-verbal communication process. (Perrault, 1978)

There is a program of ongoing inservice/staff development, including training in counseling techniques and upgrading skills in the above areas. There is a concerted effort to help the staff take the responsibility for counseling into the classroom and to perceive how their role fits into and effects the total program. Staff meetings are held frequently, where a spirit of teamwork has been developed between all of the different functions of the staff, as well as between the international and

local staff. Their main objective is the development of the "whole person", and all staff members are willing to continue to work on ways to enhance that development.

The concepts of the LOIC are quite unique. For most of the staff this is the first exposure to such a program. Much time and energy is devoted to training and hiring personnel who will promote such principles and concepts.

Prior to 1980 there were no counseling courses at the National University of Lesotho, and there was only a small and temporary effort to include principles of counseling at the National Teacher Training College. Therefore, finding counselors or trained teachers with a counseling background was a difficult task. In addition, there are few support services for this program or other programs of this sort because of the lack of trained counselors in the country.

2. Participants. LOIC has an open-entry policy. Trainees are accepted at their own individual level and allowed to progress through the program at their own pace. The instructors are encouraged to treat each trainee as an individual which helps them receive the maximum benefit from the program. The small instructor/ trainee ratio helps the participants receive more individual attention, and the participants feel they are known and

appreciated by their teachers.

The trainees feel good about the student services, individual attention, and job placement and follow-up services; they consider these components a necessary part of their training experience. When questioned about the program, all of the trainees listed the counseling service as an important part of their program and took advantage of the counseling sessions.

Many of the participants are used to the traditional ways of dealing with their problems and are not initially comfortable with this "modern" approach of having someone helping them with their problems. Therefore, it takes a while for the participants to use the service voluntarily, if at all.

3. Philosophy and Objectives. When questioned about the philosophy of the LOIC, the Director, George Cook (1980) gave the following answers: "to give education that translates into a paycheck" and "to keep Basotho workers in Lesotho." Those answers seem to form the informal philosophy of the LOIC as well as the stated objectives as described in the literature of the organization. This, along with the efforts of the LOIC to develop the "whole person", directly contributes to linking training with the world of work.

4. Activities and Content. The LOIC provides short, intensive training courses for youth to gain employment as quickly as possible. In combination with these courses, the support and counseling services help the trainee adjust to the world of work in a way that no other organization in Lesotho has been able to accomplish.

The courses are adapted to the manpower needs of the particular locality in the country where the trainees will settle; they involve industry and the world of business in content and methods.

Basically an American model, the program requires a high input of technical assistance from American hired personnel to implement the initial courses and activities.

5. Planning. The initial planning for the LOIC program was done by a cross-section of personnel from both the private and public sectors. The present Board of Directors still consists of a mix of various kinds of persons and institutions.

The day-to-day planning is done by both the local and international staff who attempt to respond to the needs of the trainees, the staff and the community at large. However, there are no students involved in the planning process.

6. Funding/control. At present the U.S. government provides adequate funding to support the program, and this is likely to continue for a number of years. In addition there is some funding support from OIC International. To assure financial viability in the future, specific government and private organizations have been identified locally. Nevertheless, when local institutions do take over and funding becomes more limited, it is likely that the counseling services will be the first part of the program to be eliminated.

The Board of Directors has control over the particular program and staff and, because the LOIC is an autonomous, private, non-governmental organization, they have considerable freedom to determine what goes into the program. In addition, there is an "informal" control mechanism in the fact that LOIC is part of a larger organization, with its already established programs in the U.S. and elsewhere in Africa.

7. Follow-up. The follow-up component is an important part of the program; the trainees are given a high degree of support on their entry to the world of work and there is constant dialogue between the Center, the staff, the trainees and the employers.

The results of the follow-up discussions and observations are incorporated into the planning of the

courses and the kinds of problems identified are topics for discussions during the group and individual guidance sessions.

Additional comments. Not only does the LOIC fit the researcher's "ideal" model for using vocational guidance in a program for out-of-school youth, but it seems to fit the needs of the youth and employers concerned. When informal interviews were conducted with people who had had some contact with the LOIC, the results were both positive and encouraging.

The only question that seemed to arise was the value of spending so much money on vocational guidance and counseling: wasn't there a cheaper way of giving the same kinds of services? And were there such significant benefits of counseling to justify hiring so many specialists? It would seem that the formal evaluations of the OIC in Lesotho, as well as the "track record" of the OIC's in other African countries, could best answer those questions.

Table 17

SUMMARY OF LOIC PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION: private, community based
currently ages 16-25, 15% of approximately 50 trainees were girls; primary and secondary school drop outs
goal: vocational training in carpentry, masonry, plumbing, sheet metalling with feeder course and job development
duration: 15 months

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: diagnostic assessments
individual and group counseling; parental contact
skills in job-getting and retention
job placement; ongoing contact with employers
counseling atmosphere

NEEDS ADDRESSED: coping with economy in Lesotho
involvement of parents/youth in decisions
relevant training/education
alternatives to mining
recognition of individual skills
survival skills for city youth
support services for transition
enhancement of self image
updated information on world of work
remove feelings of isolation/alienation
nontraditional training for women
forum for discussing common concerns
development of productive relationships
skills for future adult roles

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	trained counsellors on permanent staff training in and outside Lesotho instructors hired for guidance-related characteristics ongoing staff development staff encouraged to utilize guidance function in classroom	new concept for local instructors. limited training facilities found in country
2. Participants	open-entry policy enjoy the counseling part of program; appreciate benefits	formal counselor is new concept for trainees
3. Philosophy/Objectives	relevant education for employment development of whole person formalized and implemented	
4. Activities/Content	short, intensive, relevant support services complement skill acquisition adapted to local manpower needs	based on American model and dependent initially on outside technical assistance
5. Planning	cross-section of personnel from private, public sectors responds to community at large all staff involved	little youth involvement
6. Funding/control	outside donor commitments for continuation from private, public sources autonomy	conformity to controls of funding agency if funding becomes limited counseling will go first
7. Follow-up	high degree of support for entry into jobs continual dialogue with employers results of evaluations incorporated into planning, programming	

Lesotho Distance Teaching Center

Description. The LDTC was started in 1974 and currently has three main activities that serve the out-of-school youth population: helping private candidates study subjects for the JC (American equivalent of grade ten) and the COSC (grade twelve) school leaving examinations; writing materials on practical subjects for rural people and encouraging village groups to work with the materials; and teaching literacy and numeracy.

To help private candidates studying for JC and COSC subjects, the Distance Teaching Center offers a range of correspondance courses and radio programs, recruiting secondary school teachers to act as part-time tutors to mark scripts and run week-end courses. The enrollments in this section was approximately 500 in 1980. The candidates in this group range from primary school finishers and secondary and high school drop outs to teachers who are trying to upgrade their academic skills to become qualified through the National Teacher Training College.

The second activity, which is responsible for educating rural people on practical topics, is described as "catering to adults in the rural areas" (LDTC, July 1980 Report, p. 11). However, many youth are able to take advantage of their publications. Booklets include: How to Crochet, First Aid, Cookery, Vegetable Growing,

Expecting a Baby, Watching Your Baby Grow, and Cattle Diseases. These booklets are distributed throughout various villages and groups in rural areas.

Teaching literacy and numeracy is done by various methods, and many are still in the experimental stages. The current programs consist of: distribution of literacy workbooks to interested individuals and groups outside the formal school, using literacy workbooks in the schools, using the schools as a Learning Post for literacy classes and distribution, and using a newspaper supplement, "Moithuti", to aid new literates to maintain their literacy and numeracy. One of the targeted groups for the literacy work is the herdboy population who have little or no schooling because of their long commitments to herding livestock. This group forms the largest proportion of the "disadvantaged youth" group. (Numbers in this program were unavailable.)

Use of vocational guidance. Vocational guidance is not a formal objective of the LDTC. It is the opinion of the leadership that if used, it should be done by tutors in the rural areas who work with the population involved in LDTC activities.

Examples of the ways in which individual tutors/ teachers might use vocational guidance include: giving youth information about training opportunities; assisting

youth in gaining skills for self reliance; and giving youth a chance to learn about their skills through advising them on choice of subjects.

There is a Student Advisor post in the central office of the LDTC, whose stated responsibilities were to monitor the correspondence courses, act as registrar, and recruit tutors for courses. The post was vacant when the research was being done, but colleagues in that same department said there was no evidence of any one-to-one counseling or meeting with groups of students on vocational guidance issues when the position was occupied.

Needs addressed. The Distance Teaching Center attempts to address the following needs through all three of the components dealing with out-of-school youth, as well as through the limited use of vocational guidance:

1. The need for skills to cope with the economy, including basic literacy to get a job.

2. The need for skills to survive in the rural areas.

3. The need for a second chance scheme to upgrade or supplement skills.

4. The need for access to educational opportunities in the rural areas.

Influence of program components on use of vocational guidance.

1. Staff. As mentioned above, there is a Student Advisor post in the organization, suggesting that activities of vocational guidance could be institutionalized.

Individual tutors in the rural areas work closely with youth and thus are in a good position to guide those they come in contact with. However, considering the extent of their commitment to the LDTC activities, is perhaps too much to expect them to take on an additional counseling role. Furthermore, they do not have sufficient information concerning the world of work in rural Lesotho. At present nothing of this sort is being produced at the LDTC, nor do the tutors have access to the information being published at the Career Guidance Office.

2. Participants. A large majority of the youth involved in the activities of the LDTC have either been denied normal access to educational activities or have dropped out in later stages. These youth are generally trying to find ways to access the system in order to find employment, in the formal or informal sector, or to improve their daily lives. It would seem that this group would be in need of information about the world of work for motivation and to give direction to their lives.

The youth who are involved in these programs are dispersed over a large geographical area, with a sizeable proportion in the mountainous areas. Methods would have to be devised to reach a widely-scattered population with diverse needs, skills and interests.

3. Philosophy/Objectives. The objectives of the Learning Post program lend themselves to vocational guidance objectives in that they promote functional literacy and numeracy skills to cope with the economy. Objectives of other programs focus in on improving the basic daily life of the family and to upgrade academic skills of secondary school drop outs.

There appears to be a general aim to improve the institutional capacity of the LDTC, in this stage of its development, with much less emphasis on the individual learner and his/her relationshp to the world of work. With most of the energy directed towards providing distance teaching services, it would be difficult to build a vocational guidance component directed toward individual needs and interests. Perhaps this objective could be built into the LDTC at a later organizational development stage.

4. Activities and Content. Most of the activities and content of the LDTC sections dealing with out-of-school youth have an indirect relation to the use of

vocational guidance in that they give the participants skills to gain a better status in life.

However, learning additional academic subjects does not necessarily mean that the correspondent will be able to get a better job; the activity itself does not necessarily provide skills for work or job improvement. Similarly learning literacy does not necessarily mean that the literate will be able to fill out an application form better or read an agricultural scale to be able to get a fairer price at the market. Functional literacy skills might better suit the youth as they try to relate to the world of work.

More attempts should be made at relating the content of the booklets, courses, and materials to the world of work in order for those activities to have more relevance to the participant.

5. Planning. There have been several research projects to assess the needs of the clientele and the general abilities of the population, and these results have been incorporated into the planning stages of the organization. In addition, a recent survey of nonformal educational activities in Lesotho should help the LDTC as a service agency to better meet the needs of the population.

All of the planning is done by the central office, with the help of consultants and experts from the United States and Ireland. While this kind of planning is useful, it does not involve lower level staff nor the participants themselves. This kind of planning reinforces the institutional-building objectives of the organization rather than addressing individual needs of the participants and therefore does not promote the use of vocational guidance as a technique.

6. Funding/Control. Much of the funding and control for the organization comes from international donor agencies, which means that the LDTC has access to a lot of money for experimentation and alternative staffing and methodological practices. If the organization wanted to stress vocational guidance, there would be money to train personnel and assist with activities toward that objective.

Because the LDTC is responsible to these funding sources, most of the control over programming lies in the hands of persons outside the environment in which the youth are involved.

7. Follow-up. Because most of the LDTC programs are in their experimental stages there is no way of assessing their activities and methods in relationship to youth and the world of work. There is evidence as to how

many enrolled in the correspondence courses have passed their exams, etc. but little information concerning how these new academic qualifications will be used. Decision-makers need access to such information.

Additional comments. The staff at the LDTC is young and inexperienced, and most of the programs they are carrying out are in their early experimental stages. Until the institution is sufficiently secure in its role vis a vis the youth of Lesotho, there will be no direction towards the integration of vocation guidance into the ongoing activities of the program.

Table 18

SUMMARY OF LDTC PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION: government-sponsored
all ages; 500 private candidates;
goal: experimental program for herdboys; private candidates for secondary schools subjects; practical booklets for rural people; literacy/numeracy
duration: variable

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: not formal part of program
student advisor's role not functional
individual tutors may give youth information; assist youth in gaining skills; advise on choice of subjects

NEEDS ADDRESSED: skills to cope with economy/survival skills
second chance scheme for school leavers
access to education in rural areas

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	institutionalization of Student Advisor individual tutors work with youth in their own environment	guidance may be an extra burden for volunteers lack of inservice training; information about world of work
2. Participants	neglected portion of population motivated to gain skills and information	widely dispersed; limited personal contact
3. Philosophy/Objectives	literacy program related to vocational guidance goals	emphasis on development of institutional capacity and less on individual learner no attempt to link with world of work
4. Activities/content	indirect relation to world of work booklets tied to income generation	need complementary services to relate literacy and academics to world of work
5. Planning	research section surveys client, community needs/abilities/resources	central office with help from outside experts; no involvement of lower level
6. Funding/control	fees/outside agencies can experiment with alternatives	responds to controls of donors government controls
7. Follow-up	research on examination results	little assessment of impact on youth and world of work

Lesotho Youth Service

Description. The Lesotho Youth Affairs Council administers youth centers which cater to Standard seven completers between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one. The only fully-operating center at Mantsebo serves approximately 200 youth per year. The center in Thaba Tseka had not begun to operate although there were youth and leaders present at the facility. The objectives of the centers are: to teach manual skills for income generation; to teach civics and instill a desire for participation in development; to assist youth to go back to their villages to transfer the skills they learned at the centers; and to provide skills for starting youth clubs in their villages.

Youth leaders are usually former teachers who give instruction in two programs. The girls learn sewing, home economics, agriculture, physical training and civics. The boys learn carpentry, building, agriculture, physical training, and civics. The physical training and civics parts of the course consist of paramilitary training given by the Police Force. Most youth interviewed indicated that their main motivation for participating in these courses was to make money that will help out at home. Several others said that they wanted to be able to teach others back in their villages.

The youth are dressed in military-looking uniforms, and some people interviewed, who were not involved in the centers, thought that these were modeled after the dress of the Youth Brigades, so popular in other African countries. The objectives behind LYS training is questioned in some circles,the organization often being accused of aiding the political party of the current Prime Minister by giving arms training to young recruits.

Use of vocational guidance. Vocational guidance is not a formal part of the courses offered at the LYS center, but individual instructors often take on the guidance function with the participants. Examples of activities include:

1. Helping the boys find jobs in Maseru and placing them with employers that come to the center looking for qualified cabinet-makers and builders.

2. Giving the girls a chance to take their sewing and knitting machines back to the villages to each other girls and women, in addition to giving them an incentive to start their own businesses and earn money at home.

3. Individual teachers help individuals who are "motivated or show promise" by helping them get jobs, set up small businesses in their villages, etc. Those with "no promise" are allowed to get by more or less on their own.

4. The youth do receive some marketing information as part of their courses, in addition to learning some ways to earn money and become self sufficient in their villages.

5. Many of the leaders assume a "parental" role with the trainees, helping them with personal and vocational problems and taking an active role in following-up on them once they leave the center.

Needs addressed. The program aims to address the following needs:

1. The need to learn skills to earn money for independence plus to contribute to their families' income.

2. The need for women to learn skills to help them cope with the ultimate task of managing the home without their husbands present.

3. The need to learn skills for income generation to use in the villages.

4. The need for the boys to find alternatives to the mines.

5. The need to learn ways of making contributions to village and national development.

6. The need to learn the uses and rewards of manual labor.

7. The need to supplement formal school education

with relevant educational focuses.

8. The need to remove feelings of alienation between the youth and the adults in the villages.

9. The need to give youth self-respect and recognition through their roles as teachers in the villages and as government-sponsored participants in development.

10. The need to be placed in jobs in the formal sector where their skills are appreciated.

Influence of program components on use of vocational guidance.

1. Staff. The youth leaders/instructors take their jobs very seriously. They are not very well paid nor do they receive much status or recognition for their work, but they continue to work for the youth to meet their needs.

Many of the leaders have interpreted their role with youth as one of counseling, placement and assistance with job-getting. Many of them were enthusiastic about learning vocational guidance skills and were anxious to begin some kind of inservice training. Because staff are not trained in vocational guidance, they do not carry-out such activities, except in an informal, occasional manner.

The ratio between youth and instructors is very high, and often it is impossible to spend any extra time

with the girls and boys outside of the formal classroom. In addition there are not enough instructors to allow the youth to pursue their individual skills and interests.

2. Participants. The youth involved in the LYS center realize that this is their only and last option to gain skills to help them in their roles as adults and income earners. Because there are not many options for young people this age, those involved in the programs are well motivated and anxious to do their best. The programs generally cater to the poor and rural youth who have a lot to gain from such a training course, as well as from vocational guidance activities.

Many employers seek out the graduates of the courses, especially the boys; as a result, the youth do not return to the villages, as originally envisioned by the planners. When the youth are recruited to work in the city, they are exposed to a new environment without the traditional supports they are used to in the villages. This practice, in turn, sets up a whole new range of needs and problems.

3. Philosophy/objectives. The overall philosophy seems to be that of self reliance, community development and peer teaching. These directly tie into the maximum adjustment of the individual to the world of work and lend themselves to the concepts of vocational guidance.

There is no written material available to the leaders and instructors on the philosophy and objectives; most of the staff seem to "feel" what these are. However, for a more coherent and directed program, it is important that there be some documentation of the objectives and that this be directed to both leaders and participants.

4. Activities and Content. The skills learned at the center are ones that can be used to generate income or obtain a job in the formal or informal sector. There is emphasis on practical learning and products as opposed to formal classroom learning. Most of the trainees work in small groups where they help each other and develop good interpersonal skills.

There does not seem to be an organized way to teach the trainees how to teach their peers and adults in the village the skills that they have learned at the center. It is expected that they will just know how to transfer their skills. In addition there is no organized way to teach the trainees how to use these skills to earn an income: how to set up small businesses, how to market their products, how to obtain jobs in the formal and informal sector, etc. Skill learning is only half of the problem.

5. Planning. There seems to be little planning on the part of the staff, the directives for what is to be done come from the central office. One year's activities are based on what happened the previous year. Since there are no formal objectives and no assessment of needs of current participants, the staff feels no need for ongoing planning.

6. Funding/Control. Funding and control of LYS activities come from the Youth Affairs Council, the agency in control of the national youth activities. Funds are very limited, the only really operational center being the one outside Maseru. With little priority given to youth activities, on the national level, the LYS is severely restricted.

Administrative control is directed by a civil servant who seems to see his work simply as a means of advancement to something better; it is a job, not his life's work, and he has little real interest in LYS activities.

7. Follow-up. Follow-up is not seen as an important part of the work of the staff, and there are no formal provisions for such activity. Some of the instructors know what their trainees are doing, either from informal feedback or because they know them personally outside of the center. The staff "assumes" that the skills the participants are learning are being used in the villages.

Additional comments. LYS activities are viewed with suspicion by other youth agencies and by many of the youth themselves because of their connection with the Police Unit and because the training appears to be paramilitary instruction. This no doubt has an effect on the kinds of youth this program attracts and what the youth hope to gain from the program. The center has considerable potential to serve the rural areas, but because of deficiencies in funding and interest, it can only accomplish some of its goals.

Vocational guidance would truly enhance the work of the trainers/workers in the LYS program. Youth could benefit more from their skills instruction if they were helped to transfer their skills to others, if there were support services in their entry back to the village setting, and if they received more information about the world of work and their place in that world. Currently a few young people are helped and favored by the program while the majority are left to get what they can before returning to the rural areas. Vocational guidance would help others be successful in the LYS programs and subsequent employment-related endeavors.

Table 19

SUMMARY OF LYS PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION: govarnmant-sponsored
primary school completers ages 16-21; approximately 200 finishers par yaar
goals: income ganaration skills; civics for davelopment; transfer of skills in villagas; skills to start clubs
duration: ona yaar

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: not a formal objective
individual instructors may halp with job placamant; ancouraga small businassas; some information about world of work; assuma a parental role

NEEDS ADDRESSED:
contributa to family income
give women skills to managa home in absanca of males
income ganaration
alternatives to mining
contribute to national and villaga davalopmant
laarn usas and rawards of manual labor
supplement formal school aducation
remove feelings of alienation batwaan youth and adults
salf raspect and recognition
job placamant

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	dedicated to youth individual interpretations include counsaling role	no training in guidance or out-of-school youth high ratio of youth to instructors
2. Participants	last chance for rural youth well motivated have a lot to gain from vocational guidance	boys aspacially do not return to villages but racruited by urban employars
3. Philosopy/Objectives	informal philosophy daals with self reliancs and community davelopment and tias in with world of work	no writtan matarials on objectives
4. Activities/contant	skills lend themsalves to informal, formal sector jobs emphasis on practical learning	no organized way to train for transfer of skills to pears, adults no support sarvices or transitional link to work world
5. Planning		basad on last yaar's program little staff input
6. Funding/control		limited funding supervision/control done by a uninvolved parson no real national priority
7. Follow-up	informal network	nona

Thaba Khupa Ecumenical Farm Institute

Description. This ecumenical center is run by the Lesotho Council of Churches and caters to post primary graduates who are seventeen years and older. The 1980 enrollment was approximately fifty. As stated in their informational booklet:

> The purpose is to provide sound training in intensive agriculture, instilling in a student love of the land, a desire to develop it and the skills necessary to make a good living from it, as a young self-employed commercial farmer. To get together young people of different churches, to teach them how to live together through common work and worship, to train them in community development, local leadership and responsibility. (Thaba Khupa, 1980, p. 2)

The program consists of: a pre-entry/preparatory course where the trainees choose their specialization; a second phase (year 1) for basic knowledge; a third (year 2) with emphasis on costing and management; and the fourth (1½ years) where trainees work in their home village under supervision. The students can choose from a variety of subjects including: animal husbandry, horticulture, poultry, vegetable growing, local crafts, handicrafts, sewing and cooking, with basic instruction in English, applied mathematics, religion, health, farm management, and extension methods. In addition they learn how to maintain and repair agriculture equipment as well as equipment design.

The trainees learn to set up their own farm units and the chief of their village must give permission for use of some land before the trainee can be admitted to the course. There is a school farm and demonstration plot where the students produce crops to support the school and for income. The profits students make while at the center are transferred to a co-op society or other organization for their use when they return to their villages.

Use of vocational guidance. The Institute offers the following range of activities:

1. The pre-entry course helps the trainees choose their specialities after matching their skills and interests with existing courses. In addition they learn about themselves, which helps them assess what skills they need to work on in the coming years at the center.

2. While at the center they receive information about further training and education in the field of agriculture.

3. They learn how to relate their training to future work through the internship program.

4. They learn skills for self reliance and skills to apply to the informal sector.

5. During the year and a half spent in their own villages they get support from extension agents, parents, the village chief and from the school, which helps their

adjustment to the work world. And once they leave the school the support services are still in place for them to utilize.

6. Group work helps promote productive and positive relationships.

7. There is a close relationship between staff and students where much informal individual counseling occurs.

Needs addressed. The Institute program addresses these needs:

1. The need to learn skills to cope with the economy, especially in the rural areas.

2. The need to give young women agricultural management skills to use when and if the men in their family migrate to the city or out of the country.

3. The need to find ways to keep young people in the rural areas and give them skills that will be recognized and appreciated by the adults.

4. The need to bridge the gap between school and village life.

5. The need to make contributions to village and national development and to take leadership roles in that task.

6. The need for land allocation to young people with the appropriate skills and desire to stay on the land.

7. The need to involve parents in the life of the young person and to ease the conflict between the educated child and the uneducated adults.

8. The need to involve youth in making decisions about their programs.

9. The need to develop the self image of youth and to align their expectations with reality.

10. The need for youth to have good role models.

Influence of program components on the use of vocational guidance.

1. Staff. The staff are all committed to the objectives of the school and are concerned with the adjustment and training of the whole individual. Leaders and instructors are willing to spend the time and energy on the program to make it work for each trainee. There are no exams, and each individual is encouraged to succeed and develop to his/her own potential.

The staff expressed desire to learn more vocational guidance techniques but the current time-line does not allow for much time to be spent on inservice training.

2. Participants. By and large the participants have tried other avenues of employment and other types of schooling before coming to Thaba Khupa. They realize that the components of this program are different and that the advantages of learning to set up farm units is worth

the time and energy they will put out. Participants are well-motivated and appreciate the individual help and support they get during their time at school and in the village.

3. Philosophy/Objectives. The philosophy and objectives are well-articulated and understood by the participants and staff. The three main components are also in line with the national development goals: production at village level, self employment, and generation of local interest in improved agricultural techniques.

4. Activities and content. The content of the program covers all areas of the trainees' lives: attitude development, skill enhancement, relations with others, and love of God and country, which is very well related to the young persons' cultural environment.

There are still some restrictions on the kinds of courses that males and females can take. These choices will expand with time and the new directions Basotho women are taking in the field of agriculture.

5. Planning. Planning for the overall program is done by the staff of the center, the Principal and a board of advisors from the Lesotho Council of Churches, agricultural personnel, and other persons from donor agencies. There seems to be considerable input from all concerned parties.

The youth themselves design their programs when they are in the pre-entry course, and in their second year actually plan their own farms and their internship activities. Students are given a great deal of responsibility for their own activities and courses.

The youth are not involved in the planning of the overall school program. Because they contribute so much to the maintenance and leadership of the school, this could be a point worth looking at.

6. Funding/Control. The school is more or less controlled by the board, the Principal and the Council of Churches, with some input by the donor agencies. Because it is a private organization/institute, there is no governmental control, which gives the center flexibility in programming and allocation of funds.

Money donated by international agencies is tightly controlled by the school; donor agencies can not dictate how they want their money spent. The institution seems to be totally dependent on donations and there is constant concern about continuity of financial support.

7. Follow-up. Follow-up surveys indicate that trainees are still, by and large, in agriculture and have generated local interest in improving agricultural techniques. The follow-up is done by extension agents who work in the areas where the trainees live and work.

Trainees are often asked how to improve the course at Thaba Khupa.

Additional comments. The center seems to be very well run, although many of the staff, expatriate missionaries, are not permanent members. Religious zeal may help the staff to achieve their ambitious goals of generating local interest in the work of their graduates as they work towards self-employment.

This program is successful in that it is closely tied to national development goals as well as the individual goals of its trainees. The role of vocational guidance is closely tied to the success of the program. However this program can only work if the staff/trainee ratio remains small and the community takes an active role in the placement and adjustment of the agricultural "interns."

Table 20

SUMMARY THABA KHUPA PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION:	private: sponsored by Lesotho Council of Churches post primary graduates over 16 years; currently 50 trainees goal: agricultural/home economic skills with emphasis on self employment duration: 3-1/2 years
USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE:	pre-entry course matches skills with courses; learn about self support services group guidance informal counseling
NEEDS ADORESSED:	skills to cope with economy agricultural management skills, especially for women keep young people in rural areas recognition bridge gap between school and village life contribute to development assume leadership roles land allocation involvement of parents youth involvement in planning and decision making development of self image positive role models

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Staff	committed to objectives of developing whole person expressed interest in vocational guidance	little time on in-service training
2. Participants	well motivated appreciate support of school.	
3. Philosophy/Objectives	well articulated staff/trainees aware in line with national development goals	
4. Activities/content	covers all areas of trainees' lives	restriction on courses for males and females
5. Planning	input from all concerned parties youth plan individual programs and internship activities	
6. Funding/control	flexibility outside donors money is tightly controlled by school food grown by trainees	dependent upon donations
7. Follow-up	done by extension agents in area information used in planning extensive support services	

Royal Crown Jewelers

Description. The Royal Crown Jewelers a private business concern that runs an on-the-job training section for out-of-school youth interested in gold and silversmithing. It is one of the only training programs designed exclusively for artistically-inclined out-of-school youth.

The objectives of the program are to train local youth in jewelry making, to create new jobs, and to make use of local talent. The two-year course takes on approximately ten youth, mainly from rural areas, and trains them to make and design jewelry. They learn fundamental drawing, toy making, and jewelry making and design.

The participants are usually JC finishers (grade ten) who have nowhere to go after they complete school. They have a high motivation to use their talents and begin employment immediately. They receive almost immediate recognition for their talent through a professional job.

Use of vocational guidance. The Manager of the Royal Crown Jewelry training section described the following uses of vocational guidance:

1. The instructors give youth a chance to discover and enhance their skills and abilities in the areas of art.

2. The youth are given information about further training, employment and scholarship information in this field or related fields.

3. Youth are given information on how their training relates to future work; on-the-job training incorporates management practices in addition to straight jewelry making.

4. Youth are given individualized instruction and are encouraged to reach their individual potential.

5. Even though the youth are employed in the business when they complete their studies, they are made aware of other kinds of employment they can seek with the kinds of skills they have gained.

6. The Manager believes that the youth are given chances to discuss their needs and frustrations with each other and with the adults who work with them.

7. The group of trainees is small. This tightly knit atmosphere gives youth abilities to carry out positive and productive relationships with others.

Needs addressed. The kinds of needs addressed by the program are:

1. The need for training that translates into a paycheck.

2. The need for recognition of talent and abilities that are not normally catered to in the existing school curriculum.

3. The need to find alternative ways of making a living.

4. The need to relate training to the world of work.

5. The need to enhance the self image of the youth.

6. The need to earn an income that can be sent home to parents and families in the rural areas.

Influence of program components on the use of vocational guidance.

1. Staff. The staff are crafts people who are anxious to share their skills with young, enthusiastic artists. The small ratio between staff and trainees helps personal interaction and individualized instruction. However, the staff has no special training in youth affairs or teaching, and they consider this a disadvantage in their work with the apprentices.

2. Participants. Because the trainees can see the direct relation between what they are doing and the world of work, they are highly motivated. In addition, they often discover talents that have been ignored in other educational institutions.

3. Philosophy/Objectives. These are directly related to business and trainees' needs although they are not formally written down.

4. Activities and content. Here again, the business needs and trainees' needs are the primary focus of

activities. The training is on-the-job.

5. Planning. All planning is done by staff and related to trainee talents and business needs.

6. Funding/Control. Partial funding for the program comes from the business itself, and part from the Lesotho National Development Corporation. The second source of funding is dependent upon factors outside the control of the staff and may or may not be continued from time to time.

7. Follow-up. Since the trainees are employed in the same establishment, it is easy to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the instruction and the accomplishments of the individual trainee.

Additional comments. The Royal Crown program is successful in terms of placing its trainees in jobs that directly relate to the goals of the business, in addition to enhancing the talents and skills of its trainees. However, the program meets only a tiny proportion of Lesotho's manpower needs, and questions of its usefulness to development are legitimate. Programs which train and place a larger number of youth might be more desirable. However, interest in promoting this kind of youth program does not exist. This is one of the few, if not the only business, that caters to youth alone for their on-the-job training. All of the other businesses that were contacted catered to adults or highly educated youth.

Table 21

SUMMARY OF ROYAL CROWN JEWELERS PROGRAM

DESCRIPTION: privete buelnese; on-the-job training
grade 10 finishers; 10 per cycle
goel: silver end goldsmithing
duretion: verieble

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE: group guidance end information giving
opportunities to develop reletionships
job plecement/support

NEEDS ADDRESSED: relevent treining
recognition of telent not cetered to elsewhere
enhencement of self imege
support families

INFLUENCE OF PROGRAM COMPONENTS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE USE	CONTRIBUTING FACTORS	CONSTRAINING FACTORS
1. Steff	anxious to share skills with treineee small retio of steff to treineee	no treining in specific skills to work with youth
2. Particlpents	ewere of the direct reletion between treining and work heve e chence to uee ignored telente highly motiveted	limited numbers limited demand for skill
3. Philoeophy/objectivee	directly releted to business and treinees' needs	not formalized
4. Activities/content	on the job	may seturete field and discontinue treining
5. Planning	by staff, funding source releted to treinee telents and bueiness needs	
6. Funding/control	outeide supplement to trein	funding may stop
7. Follow-up	on the job	

Summary

The first conclusion that can be drawn concerning educational programs for out-of-school youth in Lesotho is that by and large, this segment of the population is being neglected. The researcher can find long lists of programs for youth--both in the government sector (such as in Agriculture or Education) and in the private sector; however, many of these lack an education component and the majority of participants in most are youth in-school. The problem seems to lie in a national policy which gives no priority consideration to out-of-school youth--those who are hardest to reach and to involve in programs.

A second observation concerns the wide range of program offerings and program commitment to youth as whole persons. Most programs offer training in skills without the complementary services of vocational guidance to help youth transfer those skills and to adjust to the work world. As seen in Table 22, some programs scored very well in their guidance offerings while others just brush the surface.

A variety of factors contribute to the use of vocational guidance in any one program (see Table 23). The factors which have the greatest influence on the use of vocational guidance seem to be: staff training/

Table 22

USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN LESOTHO: SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS
(x indicates frequent use and formal part of program)

Content	Juvenile Detention	Young Farmers	Farmers Training	LOIC	LDTC	Leaotho Youth Service	Thaba Khupa	Royal Crown
1. Chances to learn about self? (interests, skills, abilities)	x			x			x	
2. Give information about occupations?	x			x			x	x
3. Help match skills with jobs?	x		x	x		x	x	x
4. Give information about training/education opportunities?	x		x	x		x	x	x
5. Relate training/ education to future work?				x		x	x	x
6. Skills for self-reliance/income generation?		x	x	x	x	x	x	
7. Skills for job finding in formal sector?				x				
8. Information on employment possibilities/ state of labor market?				x		x		
9 Skills for job getting?				x				
10. Placement/support services?	x		x	x		x	x	x
11. Forum for needs discussions?	x			x			x	
12. Skills for developing productive relationships	x			x				x

development; the philosophy and objectives of the particular program; and how these are translated into relevant activities and program content. Table 24 indicates that the majority of programs that do not use vocational guidance have constraining factors in the following areas: staff training/development; philosophy; and some input on the part of donors and government budget makers.

Two overriding issues have implications for programming: the kind of leadership that exists in the youth programs and at the national decision-making levels, and the level of commitment by the national government to youth. Do the planners and decision-makers regard the youth of Lesotho as a problem of as a resource? Are they viewed as agents of social change or as a means of upholding the status quo? Secondly, if there are few positive models already existing in the country, it will be difficult to incorporate vocational guidance into a program. Leaders, planners, and youth need to see how this can be done and how such programming can yield positive results. These issues will be addressed in Chapter VI.

Table 23

SUMMARY OF CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN LESOTHO PROGRAMS

Program Component	Juvenile Detention	Young Farmers	Farmers Training	LOIC	LDTC	Lesotho Youth Service	Thaba Khupa	Royal Crown
Staff	inservice training; recognition of values; caring attitudes; group problem solving	individual styles/role definitions	individual role definitions	trained counselors on permanent staff; inservice training; personnel selection criteria; guidance atmosphere in classroom	Student Advisor on staff, individual tutors work with youth in their environment	dedicated to youth; individual role definitions include guidance	committed to development of whole person; interested in vocational guidance	anxious to share skills; small ratio of staff/trainees
Participants	easily diagnosed needs; common needs/problems; small staff/youth ratio	need to be involved in clubs; see skills for income generation; want more information on world of work	disadvantaged groups; girls enthusiastic; boys can get jobs	open-entry policy; appreciate counseling component	neglected groups; motivated to gain skills and information	last chance for rural youth; well motivated; much to gain from vocational guidance	well motivated; appreciate support of school	aware of direct relation between training and work; have a chance to see ignored talents; highly motivated
Philosophy, Objectives	centered on rehab. and integration	focus on income generation/self reliance	focus on self reliance/ agricultural productivity	relevant education for employment; development of whole person; formalized and implemented	literacy program related to vocational guidance	informal philosophy deals with world of work/self reliance/community development	well-articulated; staff/trainees aware; in line with national development goals	directly related to business/ trainees' needs
Activities/ Content	development of survival skills/ basic education	skills to earn money/ improve homes	skills for income generation	vocational skills; short/intensive/relevant; support services complements skill acquisition; adapted to manpower needs	indirect relation to work; booklets tied to income generation	skills for informal formal sector jobs; emphasis on practical learning	all areas of trainees' lives	on-the-job
Planning	comprehensive needs assessment; philosophy incorporated; entire staff involved	interagency cooperation/ strategies	individual centers have a degree of flexibility	involves private public sectors; responds to community; all staff involved	research section surveys client, community needs, abilities, resources		input from all concerned parties: youth plan individual programs/internship activities	done by staff, funding source; related to trainee talents, business needs
Funding/ control	flexible	assistance from internship donors; clubs have independent budget from central government	priority program in Ministry	outside donor continued commitment autonomy	outside agencies; fees; free to experiment with alternatives		flexibility; outside donors' money tightly controlled by school	outside supplement to train
Follow-up	placement of clients; evaluation of vocational guidance component	informal evaluations at local level	informal evaluations/ tracer studies	support for job entry; continual dialogue with employers; formal evaluation results used	research on examination results	informal network	done by extension agents in area in youth's internship; information used in planning; [illegible] services	on-the-job

Table 24

SUMMARY OF CONSTRAINING FACTORS TO THE USE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN LESOTHO PROGRAMS

Program Component	Juvenile Detention	Young Farmers	Farmers Training	LOIC	LDTC	Lesotho Youth Service	Thaba Khupa	Royal Crown
Staff	lack of reinforcement of guidance function; inconsistent staff development; heavy work load	limited staff development; no expertise in vocational guidance; no formal training in youth affairs; leadership does not link program with work world	no formal training; large staff turnover; negative attitudes	new concept of local instructors; limited in-country facilities for training	guidance may be burden for volunteer staff; lack of inservice training; no information on world of work	no training in guidance or out-of-school youth; high youth/instructor ratio	little time on inservice training	no training in specific skills to work with youth
Participants	varying amounts individual attention/inconeletent	no access to land; cultural values; negative attitude towards labor/agriculture; lowland youth only	youth see participation as an escape/route to jobs in urban areas; limited for boys; unrealistic expectations	formal counselor is a new concept for trainees	widely dispersed limited personal contact	boys rarely return to village		limited numbers; limited demand for specific skills
Philosophy/ Objectives	not written down; dependent on current staff	no attempt to link with work world; central office sets no local club objectives; no youth involved in setting	not written down; don't match with youth needs or actual program results; no objectives at individual centers		emphasis on institutional capacity and less on learner; no attempt to link with work world	no written materials on objectives		
Activities/ Content	lack of guidance information; no expertise or money for expansion	based on skills of organizers not youth needs; no training in vocational guidance; limitations for boys	no transition to village realities; cultural barriers; relevant?	based on American model; dependent initially on outside technical assistance	need complementary services to relate literacy/ academics to work world	no organized way to train for transfer of skills; no support services or transitional link to work world.	restrictions on course for females/ males	may saturate field and discontinue training
Planning		most done at central level with little interest on supervisor's part; lack of youth involvement	based on skills of organizers	little youth involvement	central office with help from side experts; no involvement at lower level	based on past; limited staff input		
Funding/ control	meager central government budget; no outside assistance	lack of funds for staffing/ materials; donor agencies limit use of funds	weak control at decision-making levels	conformity to controls of funding agency; if funding becomes limited guidance will go first	responds to controls of donors; government controls	limited funds supervision/ control done by uninterested person; no real national priority	dependent upon donations	funds may be discontinued
Follow-up	limited referral resources; lack of inter-agency cooperation	no support services	lack of formal evaluation and use of existing information		little assessment of impact on youth and work world	none		

C H A P T E R V I

IMPROVING SERVICES TO LESOTHO'S YOUTH

Introduction

The previous chapters have addressed the needs of Lesotho's youth, the need for programmatic and policy responses to these, and the relevance and possible uses of vocational guidance in out-of-school education programs. This chapter focuses on the question of improvement of youth services in Lesotho and is divided into three sections: conclusions about existing practices and programming; specific recommendations for improvement; and options for integrating vocational guidance into programs for out-of-school youth in Lesotho.

Summary Observations

The following observations can be drawn concerning services for out-of-school youth in Lesotho:

1. Youth desire to become more active participants in local and national development.

2. Existing programs for out-of-school youth attempt to reach a variety of implicit and explicit goals relating to national development and manpower utilization, as well

as to individual human development.

3. There is no coherent national policy regarding out-of-school youth or programs that serve them.

4. There is little cooperation or communication between youth agencies and government ministries.

5. Out-of-school youth reached by existing programs are only a fraction of the potential number who could benefit.

6. Needs of out-of-school youth not involved in existing programs are inadequately understood because of lack of formal needs assessment procedures.

7. Youth leaders and planners, who are the vital key to successful youth service, receive insufficient support or training in their roles.

Regarding vocational guidance in existing services:

1. Vocational guidance takes place in Lesotho's youth programs either on an informal or formal basis.

2. A wide variety of out-of-school youth needs are met through these existing vocational guidance practices.

3. Planners, staff, and out-of-school youth express interest in vocational guidance.

4. Minimal staff inservice and preservice training efforts would improve the vocational guidance offerings and services to youth in existing programs.

In light of these observations, a number of specific recommendations can be proposed for improving services to out-of-school youth.

Recommendations for Youth Programming

Policy making/planning

Review of planning documents at the national level as well as discussions with political and government leaders concerning out-of-school youth revealed the lack of an overall youth policy at the time of the study. The past three Five Year Development Plans (starting in 1969) made some sector references to out-of-school youth. The Ministries of Agriculture, Education, and Health, for example, made references and programmatic statements about the problem; separate and narrowly defined objectives were included by individual departments and planners. Individual ministries and departments should be responding to overall national policies and goals for out-of-school youth. The Five Year Development Plans, which are intended to give direction and scope to Lesotho's development efforts, must have a particular focus on out-of-school youth with people taking direct responsibility for youth's involvement. The problem will not go away by ignoring it!

Policy makers and leaders must make decisions about the role of youth now and in the future. This decision

will influence the national policy regarding out-of-school youth. Are out-of-school youth to be regarded as agents of change in Lesotho or, by being ignored, do they serve rather to maintain the status quo? Are out-of-school youth participants and contributors to development or observers and receivers? Are Basotho youth regarded as a "problem" or a "resource"? How can youth's energy be focused?

Once these questions are answered, the next step would be to evaluate what components in their lives to focus on. Are out-of-school youth in Lesotho viewed only in terms of economics and education and, therefore, focus will be put only on educational/training programs for skill training for the formal sector? Or is consideration to be given to the individual in light of his/her complex psycho-social realities?

To sum up, it is the national interest of Lesotho to directly address the needs of its youth on a programmatic policy level. First, in its youth lies great resources--of energy, creativity, and potential motivation to be involved in national development. Secondly, ignoring youth needs will exacerbate a potentially volatile situation. To assist the process of making decisions for, with and by youth, the following additional recommendations should be considered and acted upon:

Comprehensive needs assessment. As evidence in Chapter IV strongly suggests, there should be a national needs assessment where youth are given a chance to speak out about their problems and frustrations, as well as their opinions about development, society, and solutions to common problems and barriers. Youth leaders, workers, and extension agents from throughout the country should together construct a needs assessment instrument and process that will take a qualitative and quantitative look at the situation of all youth in Lesotho. For too long, Lesotho has recognized only the fortunate few who are in school. It is time to assess the situation of the out-of-school youth population and make that assessment a basis for policies, programming, budget requirements, manpower needs, and staff training and development.

Evaluation of current programming. Youth leaders, policy makers and other personnel concerned with out-of-school youth should carefully re-assess the kinds of programs that are being offered to youth in light of their impact on the youth themselves as well as the villages and country as a whole. Questions to ask are: what is the current level of involvement? what are the objectives? what effect does this kind of education have on the youth and their families? and are the needs of youth being met?

The specific criteria used to evaluate youth programs will vary with the types of programs offered: the success or failure of an offering in one context should not necessarily be judged in comparison with other programs. For example among programs evaluated in the foregoing chapter, it would be unwise to conclude that the Royal Crown Jewelers is a more successful program than the Farmers Training Centers because all its trainees are placed in jobs. The Royal Crown Jewelers program is successful within its own criteria; the Farmers Training Centers have different objectives. Caution must be given to criteria for success when youth programs are being evaluated, and youth planners must establish these prior to evaluation efforts. The results of such evaluation studies would impact on subsequent decisions regarding youth and youth programming.

Interagency cooperation

Discussions with youth leaders revealed that they did not really know what was going on in Lesotho regarding other programs concerned with out-of-school youth. This points to the need for information about out-of-school youth and for established means of communication between groups, even in a country as small as Lesotho.

The Youth Council should make a list of all organizations dealing with out-of-school youth programs for distribu-

tion to all parties interested and involved. Also, mechanisms should be created to bring youth leaders and workers together to share ideas and materials. In a country like Lesotho with a limited national budget, it is essential to create ways for resources, both human and material, to be shared and maximum benefit made from them. At the same time, leaders can share their models for programming, and new ideas can be tried out, based on the successes and failures of other programs.

Manpower assessment and utilization

If the affairs of the out-of-school population are to be taken seriously then they too must have a share in the pot of manpower development in Lesotho. The Manpower Development Secretariat must be convinced that youth training and staff development in this area is of equal importance to other areas of development, and scholarships and training opportunities must be made available to youth leaders and planners.

Strengthening of Youth Affairs Council

The creation of a Youth Affairs Council in 1978 was a positive move in the direction of assisting Lesotho's youth. The objectives of the Council are: to coordinate all youth movements in Lesotho; to inculcate in the young Basotho a spirit of self-reliance, discipline, leadership and civic responsibility; to ensure participation of youth

in the process of national development; to advise the government on youth affairs matters; and to look after the welfare of young Basotho and help them solve their problems (Youth Affairs Council, 1979, p. 3).

The Youth Affairs Council should be given attention and a more active role in setting their own objectives. As of now, few groups have been involved at any level with the Council, and many youth workers are unaware of their activities. If youth activities are to become more responsive to the individual needs of the youth, then the Council must be given more power, better leadership, and a commitment by government and non-government departments/ organizations to support the coordination and exchange of methods and objectives.

Promoting out-of-school youth involvement

The planners and policy makers of Lesotho, in the absence of a nation-wide youth group, need to insure that youth are involved in all phases of village and national development. A closer look at the national development plans would reveal gaps in youth involvement, especially of out-of-school youth. Youth groups do exist, but the majority of those involved are already in school. Involvement of out-of-school youth needs to be promoted in existing youth organizations such as: workcamps, the Boy Scouts, the Girl Guides, youth hostels, church groups,

New structures for young people do not need to be created, but better use needs to be made of them for reaching the disadvantaged and the ignored of Lesotho's youth.

Other organizations need to look more closely at how they can reach the out-of-school youth population. Agencies like the National Employment Service, the Women's Bureau, Lesotho Handicrafts/Basotho Hat Cooperative, Credit Unions, and the Lesotho National Development Corporation should be able to create mechanisms to involve and promote the participation of out-of-school youth in both the urban and rural areas.

The Lesotho Association of Nonformal Education should take an active role in studying the youth situation in Lesotho and promoting recognition of and programming for out-of-school youth. This organization could be aided and motivated by educators at the Institute of Extramural Studies at the National University who already have become actively involved in programs for out-of-school youth, using university students and outside donor resources.

Elevation of status of youth workers

When youth are recognized as equal partners in de-development, those who work with youth will be given more recognition. As it stands now, youth leaders and workers receive low pay and have no status in government circles.

Many have trained in other centers in Africa and elsewhere, but because they return to thankless, low-paying jobs, they feel ready to leave when something better comes along.

Because the self-esteem of youth depends in part on the attitudes of adults who interact with them on a close interpersonal level, it is important that youth leaders and workers receive the kind of recognition they deserve.

Options for Improved Use of Vocational Guidance

The vocational guidance model selected for secondary schools is already in place in Lesotho. However, this model may not be appropriate for those youth who are outside of the formal system. Prior to making specific recommendations to improve programmatic components, Lesotho must decide what model of vocational guidance to use for the out-of-school youth population.

Of primary consideration for planning must be on the one hand, national youth policy regarding the role youth are to play in development, and on the other the needs and problems of Basotho youth and the best ways to meet those needs. Planners must consider whether vocational guidance is to be delivered through current out-of-school youth programs or whether other mechanisms are to be established or improved for that purpose.

At present, government policy seems to be aimed at preserving the status quo, where youth is given little motivation for change or for contributing to development. If this is so, then it will determine selection of a vocational guidance model: rather than encouraging youth with new options, by providing new information and incentive, such guidance will serve only to keep youth aspiring to work in the South African mines, to drift to the cities, or to remain idle in the rural areas.

To assist Lesotho in providing services for their young people to adjust to the world of work, the following section outlines recommendations that the existing programs could follow.

Staff

Recommendations centering on the staff component for the integration of vocational guidance involve the following:

1. Better inservice and preservice training of youth workers. This could be carried out either through the efforts of individual programs, as in the case of the Juvenile Detention Center, or as an interagency effort. Resources exist within the current programs for out-of-school youth: there are trained guidance personnel in the Lesotho Opportunities Industrialization Center, the

Juvenile Detention Center, and Thaba Khupa, as well as trained counselors in the Ministry of Education and the National University.

2. Recognition and commitment to the role of guidance. This could be carried out through staff hiring procedures and through job descriptions. When asked about job descriptions, most of the staff produced the standard civil service descriptions or some claimed they did not have any.

Those workers and leaders who have been doing vocational guidance on their own should be recognized and encouraged to continue this role. Many staff who are already overburdened or who are acting in a volunteer capacity need reinforcement and motivation to continue the use of vocational guidance in their programs. This is especially true in the cases of the Young Farmers Club leaders and the workers in the Lesotho Youth Service centers.

3. Documentation of activities. Existing staff activities in the field of vocational guidance in Lesotho need to be documented and shared with other youth workers. Unless there is an existing model for an activity or a role, people are often reluctant to enter a new field. This seems to be the case with youth workers taking on the role of vocational guidance facilitator. Current models and activities at the LOIC, Thaba Khupa, and the Juvenile Center need to be documented and shared with other agencies and

organizations. In addition, an evaluation of the service needs to be carried out to prove its success or failure in meeting the needs of Lesotho youth. Documentation of the results should be shared and used in training and implementation of other activities.

Participants

Recommendations which center on the participant component for the integration of vocational guidance involves the recognition of needs and how to address them. Existing programs should do their own needs assessment of the current group of participants and decide which program activities are or are not meeting these needs. Decisions should be made about services that can realistically be offered to the participants and shared with them.

Philosophy and objectives

Recommendations for the improvement of philosophy and objective setting to facilitate the use of vocational guidance concern the following:

1. Focus of philosophy. In order to meetthe range of needs of Lesotho youth (outlined in Chapter IV), the philosophy of the out-of-school youth programs should focus on the whole person; the individual's interaction and adjustment to the world of work; and a recognition of Lesotho's social variables and their interaction with the economic variables in the development process. Those programs that have been able to do this, namely the Juvenile

Detention Center, the LOIC, Thaba Khupa and the Lesotho Youth Service to some extent, should share their objectives and philosophies and act as models for other groups.

2. Formulation and implementation. Objectives and philosophies of each group need to be articulated in written form ideally, as developed by the participants and the leaders themselves. If they are created by the national or central office or the core group of leaders, then it is essential that they be shared with all others involved. Leaders of several groups had a sense of the philosophy underlying their work, but the workers, instructors, and participants at lower levels were not aware of the intended direction of the program.

In addition, individual clubs, instructors, and centers should be encouraged to set their own program objectives based on the specific needs of the youth in their area. Lesotho is homogeneous to some extent, but the youth clubs and programs in the mountains are certainly different from those in the lowlands, as are those in the city versus rural areas.

Activities and content

Recommendations to make the offerings to out-of-school youth more relevant to the individual and the world of work include:

1. Relevant to the individual and collective needs of the participants. After a needs assessment is made of

the country and the individual young people, then the activities should be correlated with those needs. This includes relevant work skills, and methods for making the transition to the world of work and community realities.

2. Support services. These should complement skill acquisition as is done in the cases of Thaba Khupa, LOIC, and the Juvenile Detention Center. These should be a formal part of the program rather than provided only for the "best and the brightest" or only when the leaders have the time or connections.

3. Content. Specific topics should include: giving youth chances to learn about self and to gain information about occupations and further training, education, and job possibilities. As seen in Table 22, some programs have been more successful in these areas, and their expertise should be shared with other groups to help them add these offerings to their programs.

4. Youth forums. Activities should include forums for youth to discuss their needs, problems and interests; ways that they feel they can contribute to development; and how to improve relationships with peers and employers, adults, and others.

Planning

Many of the planning recommendations in the first section of this chapter (p. 228) should be implemented before this phase of program planning can have relevance or support.

1. Interagency/intersectional cooperation. All agencies that affect youth, as well as representatives of the community, should be involved at some level on the program planning committees to meet the range of youth needs: social, health, education, nutrition, clothing/housing, welfare, employment, psychological, etc.

2. Planning should be vertical. Lesotho is a small enough country to be able to involve all levels of administrators, leaders, workers/instructors, and youth themselves in the planning. If more than "token" participation is expected, then resultant activities and programmatic concerns will benefit the youth and leaders who are to implement the program. This is especially critical in the case of organizations that use volunteers as facilitators such as the Distance Teaching Center and the Young Farmers Clubs. Individual programs/clubs should be encouraged and assisted in their own planning mechanisms.

3. Comprehensive planning. Planning should involve needs assessments, program philosophy/objectives, and evaluation results, with consideration of the needs,

resources and constraints of the specific organization.

Funding and control

The relationship between funding and control and vocational guidance can be improved through the following recommendations:

1. Decision-making. Program planners and leaders should be either involved in how budget money should be allocated or they should be given the freedom to implement the kind of program they want within the monetary constraints. Youth leaders should be given more control over their own funds and how to spend them.

2. Donor agencies. These can be used advantageously if the recipients have a clear plan as to how to implement their program and how to involve the agency. Programs should use the example of Thaba Khupa for control over donor funds and how to gain maximum benefit from foreign assistance.

3. Selection of supervisors. Consideration should be given to those persons who enjoy working with youth and understand the range of their needs and problems as well as the programmatic response to these needs and the use of existing resources to facilitate program implementation. It has often been the case where youth supervisors in Lesotho were selected primarily for political reasons.

Follow-up

This factor has a two-fold implication for vocational guidance: at the individual level and at the programmatic level.

1. Individual participant. Program implementers and persons from other agencies (extension agents, for example) should take an active role in supporting the participant in his/her entry into the work world and in providing resources once that individual is on the job.

2. Program evaluation. There should be a formal process to assess the value of the existing program for the participant and the work world; the results of this evaluation to be used in new stages of planning and implementation. If the program goals are not being met, as in the case of the Lesotho Farmers Training courses, then readjustments need to be made to respond to the current situation. Funds and training should be provided in the programs where institutional support for this activity is not in existence.

C H A P T E R V I I

FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Individual young people have needs and aspirations which have an impact on the kinds of policy and programming that are planned with and for them. But before the individual needs of youth are considered or even before individual programs are planned, a wider context needs to be examined and explored. The following conclusions address issues of context and its relation to youth programs:

1. Third world nations have to address the problem of efficient and responsive ways to meet the growing numbers of youth and to contribute to the maximum development of these human resources.

2. There are no easy solutions to current world economic conditions and their effect on developing countries. The informal of "murky" economic sector seems to be the area for greatest employment possibilities for out-of-school youth.

3. National youth policies are often inadequate. They are unrelated to the individual and collective needs of youth and are separated from the development process and philosophy.

4. Youth in formal schooling often receive more attention than do their out-of-school counterparts, and the financial investments in schooling far exceed that for out-of-school education.

Use of Vocational Guidance

The following conclusions can be drawn about the use of vocational guidance for out-of-school youth in developing countries:

1. More vocational guidance is occurring in out-of-school youth programs than was previously recognized or recorded in the literature.

2. A small investment in vocational guidance activities would go a long way to enhance current out-of-school educational offerings for youth and the ultimate development of the human resources of a country's people.

3. The concept and practice of vocational guidance is often misunderstood, and therefore, not immediately thought of as an important component of out-of-school education.

4. Vocational guidance can be considered a process of "consciousness raising" with its own set of political, social and economic implications.

5. The role of vocational guidance in a particular country is directly related to its development goals and

methods within a larger political, social and economic context.

6. Vocational guidance models and techniques do exist and can be adapted to appropriate contexts in the nonindustrialized nations.

7. Vocational guidance is a valuable intermediary between both the formal and nonformal educational system and the world of work.

8. The specific vocational guidance methods used in a particular country or program are most dependent on the training of its staff and the level of staff commitment to its goals.

Recommendations for Planning

The foregoing conclusions, in light of the particular case of Lesotho's youth--their problems and needs, and programmatic and policy responses--suggest a number of recommendations regarding the integration of vocational guidance practices into out-of-school education programs.

National policy

National policy statements and plans for development should include children and youth. "The importance of purposive overall national planning for youth, opposed to the practice of leaving action wholly to the family, the

community, voluntary organizations or even specialized government agencies, is now more and more widely recognized if not as yet universally accepted" (Reubens, 1967, p. 121).

Policy must be comprehensive, attending both to personal needs and to social requirements (Reubens, 1967). Regarding personal needs, planning must account for the particular character of the youth as an age group: special needs at various levels of activity and welfare (biological, psychological, and inter-personal); the interrelated nature of the needs; and their evolution and changes over the age span. There are special problems for planners in reacting to the large, complex, and semi-dependent group. Regarding social requirements, planning should recognize the exceptional role the coming generation, comprising half or more of the current world population, will have to play in the future. "For each society has forcibly to depend on the abilities of the next generation--its future producers, consumers, parents, citizens--to sustain or transform its way of life and make progress towards its economic and social goals at specifiable rates during the decades to come" (Reubens, 1967,p. 121).

The urgency of planning for youth also derives from the deficiencies of present organizations. It is no longer viable to focus on sectoral planning alone to meet the unmet needs of youth. The various programs concerned must

be viewed in their totality, including their potential for cooperative effort.

Economics remains the major focus of youth programs: youth can play an important role in the economic development of a village or a nation as a whole. However, for youth policy to respond to the development goals of the country, it must also respond to individual youth needs: how best to develop motivation and potential, how to build on abilities and to adjust to the world of work.

National policy that sees its youth as a challenging and vital resource for the country should seek creative and humanistic ways to approach that group.

Needs assessment

Youth of any country should be given a chance to speak out concerning their needs, problems, and frustrations. Not only is there a conspicuous lack of information written from the perspective of youth as a collective, but many countries have not attempted this kind of research. Youth, youth leaders, workers, and adults who work with youth should construct an instrument that will give youth a chance to talk about the gaps they feel between the ideal they dream of and the reality that faces them.

The needs assessment would then feed into the planning of programs and policies, and would influence

treatment of youth, and manpower planning and social welfare discussions. Caution must be given to insure that all groups within the "youth" category are included: rural and urban; males and females; child bearers and the married; schooled and unschooled; literate and illiterate; rich and poor; handicapped; linguistic and ethnic minorities. Each group has its own story to tell and must not be forgotten.

Evaluation of youth programming

Programs for out-of-school youth should be evaluated to determine whether they are meeting the needs of the country and the youth. Categories like the ones used for this study (staff, participants, philosophy/objectives, activities/content, planning, funding/control, and follow-up) could be used for a comprehensive view of the program.

Where gaps occur, this should be documented and shared with those concerned. Planners should promote this kind of research as a way of improving current and future programming. Programs should also be encouraged to do their own evaluations, and "self-corrective" measures should be built into programs.

Interagency cooperation

While an intersectoral policy should be stressed to deal with youth's personal needs as well as societal requirements, different agencies will be given the responsibilities

for carrying out this policy. Specialized persons, agencies, and organizations should be charged with the responsibilities for implementing effective programs.

Different programs and groups must decide where they can share resources and devise mechanisms for cooperation. If vocational guidance is to be integrated into out-of-school youth programs, then decisions can be made on how to share personnel, activities, and information. To benefit as many youth as possible, such cooperation can give leaders access to all guidance services; this is essential where one particular program may lack the expertise, information or motivation to provide for individual participants.

Selection of an appropriate vocational guidance model

As was discussed earlier, many developing countries are attempting to provide vocational guidance services for their youth. This service is traditionally offered to in-school youth at the secondary level. If a country should decide to serve the out-of-school youth population as well, it must define its own use of the term.

The vocational guidance model for a country should be based on how the planners and youth want to develop the individual and how they see the role of the individual in the society. The model should respond the particular time and setting, as well as to the purpose, content, and

definition of vocational guidance, and to the participants concerned. "Imported" definitions and models should be used with caution.

Resource assessment

When planning policy and programs, considerations must be given to the range and kinds of resources available in the particular country or region. Current expertise in vocational guidance must be assessed, and other groups experienced with youth and children should be seen as potential resources: humanistic employers; teachers and social workers; leaders in the villages; churchworkers, and the youth themselves.

Material resources must also be assessed. What materials are locally produced and available for distribution to youth and youth leaders and adults? Are there funds available from donor agencies or other private organizations to promote and produce materials for vocational guidance purposes? Are there ways of sharing resources with other programs, agencies and groups?

Meeting training requirements

A crucial variable for the successful use of vocational guidance is the human element: the staff and the participants of the programs. As was identified in the Lesotho case, staff training is essential for the integra-

tion of vocational guidance into youth programming.

An assessment should be made of existing youth leadership training in a particular country or region to find ways of developing a vocational guidance component. Both the content and process of vocational guidance should be stressed in the pre-service and in-service portions of youth leader training.

If there is guidance training taking place in the country, as in most cases for secondary school teachers, mechanisms should be devised to include youth leaders and planners in the courses, whether they be at the university level or at the teacher training colleges.

If none of the two options exist or seem to be viable for a particular group or situation, then resources must be identified to provide training for youth leaders and planners on an in-service or pre-service basis. This training could be of a nonformal nature.

Models for the training of paraprofessionals have been developed in both industrialized and nonindustrialized countries, and these could be adapted to fit a particular audience and purpose. Most countries can only hope to have a large cadre of paraprofessionals working in vocational guidance for out-of-school youth, as the limited human resources in any given country would not allow for more highly trained personnel.

Other possibilities to explore include: peer training of youth to help other youth; training of village extension agents and other community development personnel; working with and "training" parents to assist their sons and daughters as well as to help themselves cope with the changing times.

Flexible youth programming

To take into account the changing variables involved in youth programs, flexibility and adaptability seem to be the key words. A planner must be responsive to: national and local policies and goals; youth needs; social needs and requirements; shifts in human and material resources; unforeseen economic changes and development; and the political arena. Results of formative evaluations should be acted upon.

Further research topics

Topics not covered in the study but which have relevance to further understanding of vocational guidance and out-of-school youth include: development and testing of training models for youth workers in various settings; development of criteria for measuring the success of vocational guidance efforts in out-of-school youth programs; and development of a needs assessment instrument; development of vocational guidance techniques for individuals and

groups of youth.

Summary

"The future belongs to the nations who make the most of the intelligence of their youth" (Youth Needs, Problems, and Measures, 1969, p. 37). Coping with the youth population will not be an easy matter as we move through the 1980's with experience to guide us but uncertainties about the future. The task of the times for the planners of youth programs in the developing countries of the world is to meet the challenge of youth and to promote the welfare and potential contribution that group can make to future generations.

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APPENDIX

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR USE WITH OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

(to be used with individuals or groups of youth)

1. Biographical data: age, sex, years in school, home/where attended school (urban/rural), how long since completing

2. Activities since finishing school

3. Participation in any organized program/group for youths?
   - When
   - Why
   - Content/process
   - Role of leader

4. Current needs/problems (of self or others)

5. Has anyone ever given you any information on training, jobs, education, etc.?
   - Who
   - When
   - Where (in or out of school)
   - Why

6. Do you feel you need information on training, jobs, education, etc.?

7. Can you imagine what your life will be like in five years? Describe. (needs/problems)

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR YOUTH LEADERS/PLANNERS/OTHER PERSONS CONNECTED WITH YOUTH PROGRAMS

1. What is your experience with youth? (esp. out-of-school youth)
   What capacities?
   What kinds of groups/programs?

2. Current role re: youth

3. What do you think the needs and problems of out-of-school youth are?

4. Do you feel out-of-school youth programs are meeting these needs? How?

5. What are the specific goals/objectives of the out-of-school youth program you are involved in/familiar with?
   (state program. . .)

6. Is that particular program using vocational guidance content? (use program content list for reference)

7. Do you feel that vocational guidance goals are implicit or explicit? How? Why?

8. What is your opinion of the necessity for integrating vocational guidance into programs for out-of-school youth?

9. How do you think vocational guidance can be integrated into out-of-school youth programs?

10. How can we improve services to youth?

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR VISITS TO YOUTH PROGRAMS

1. Who are the leaders? (roles, job descriptions)

2. Who are the planners?
   How does planning take place? (who does it, when is it done, etc.)

3. What are the program objectives? (implicit, explicit)

4. What are the program activities/content?

5. Is vocational guidance incorporated into program? How? Who does it? Formal or informal? What needs does it meet?

6. Who are the participants? Why are they there?

7. Costs of program? Funding? Control?

8. Numbers of youth involved? Length of program?

9. What kind of staff training exists?

10. What are the future plans for program?

Include opportunistic interviews with youth.

YOUTH PROGRAMS/AGENCIES SURVEYED

Juvenile Detention Center
Young Farmers Clubs
Farmers Training Centers
Lesotho Opportunities Industrialization Center
Lesotho Distance Teaching Center
Lesotho Youth Service
Thaba Khupa School
Royal Crown Jewelers
Training for Self Reliance Project (Community Outreach)
Prince Mahato Award Scheme
Institute of Extra Mural Studies at National University of Lesotho
Basotho Hat Cooperative
Lesotho Workcamps Association
Thaba-e-Ncha
Boy Scouts
Girl Guides
Youth Hostel Association
Young Gospel Groups
Christian Life Group
Student Christian Group
Catholic Youth Association
Seventh Day Adventist Youth
Red Cross Groups
Youth Cultural Groups
Thaba Tseka Agricultural Development Project
Maila Tai
Outward Bound Association
Taekondo Youth Associations
Lesotho University Student Association
Save the Children Fund
Lesotho Council of Women
Lesotho Women's Institute
Lesotho Homemakers Association
Boiteko Women's Association
Housewives League
Sodepax School
National Employment Service
Women's Prison
Sherra Ltd. Weavers
Nutrition Centers
Lesotho Credit Unions